

# DATE LABEL

132 DL 25/4/72			
	371.2	B 768 I	
	3454		

Call No....371.2

B 768 I

Date....16.6.51.....

Account No....3454

## J. & K. UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

This book should be returned on or before the last stamped above.  
An overdue charges of 6 nP. will be levied for each day of the book is kept beyond that day.





THE JAMMU & KASHMIR UNIVERSITY  
LIBRARY.

**DATE LOANED**

Class No.                      Book No. 5112  
Vol.                     

Vol. \_\_\_\_\_ Copy \_\_\_\_\_

Accession No. 137

[illegible]





# IMPROVING INSTRUCTION





THE MACMILLAN COMPANY  
NEW YORK • BOSTON • CHICAGO • DALLAS  
ATLANTA • SAN FRANCISCO

MACMILLAN AND CO., LIMITED  
LONDON • BOMBAY • CALCUTTA • MADRAS  
MELBOURNE

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY  
OF CANADA, LIMITED  
TORONTO



# IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

Supervision by Principals of Secondary Schools

---

BY

THOMAS H. BRIGGS

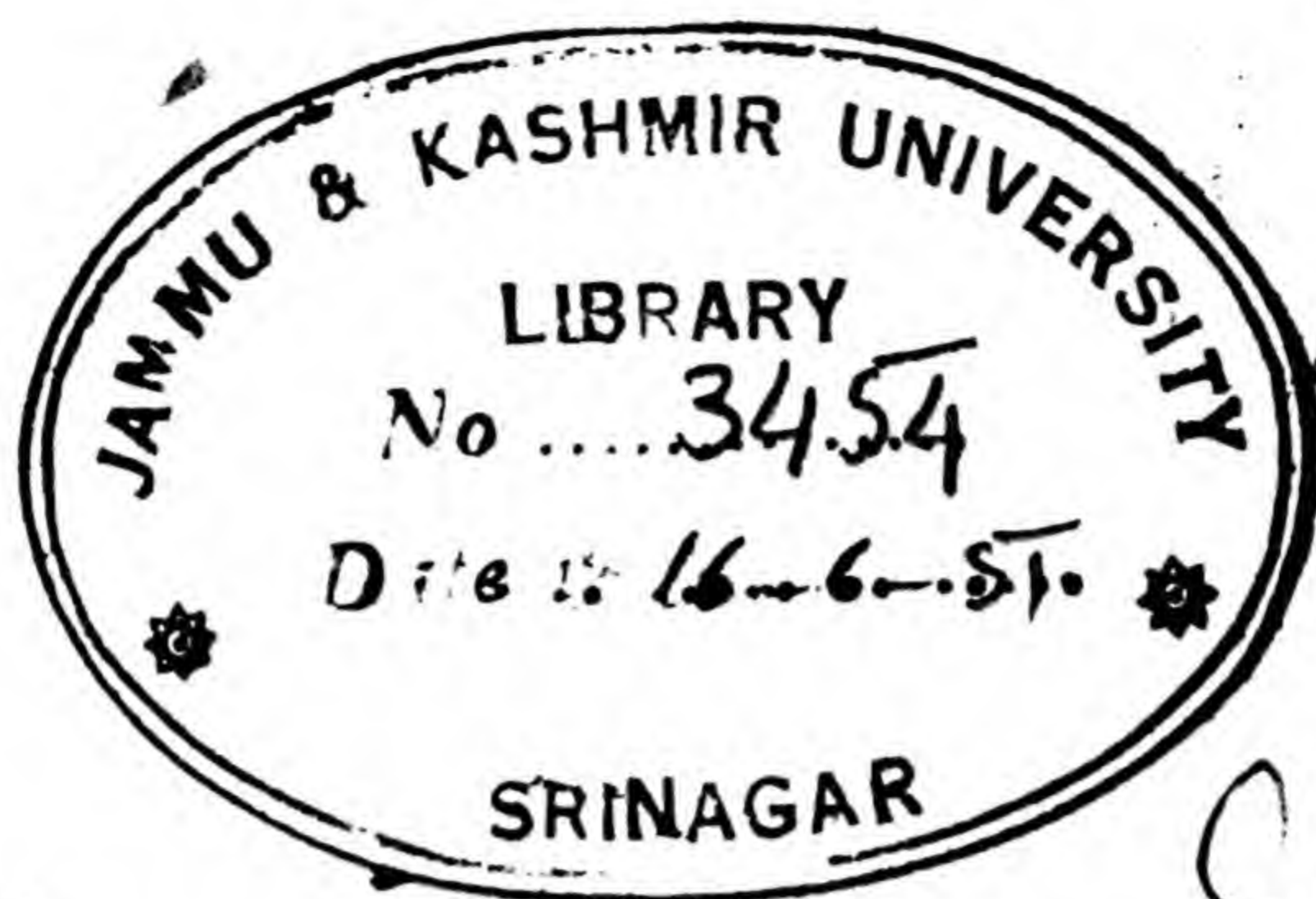
*Teachers College, Columbia University*



---

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

4  
b  
BT  
SM



ST 82

CHECKED

M

COPYRIGHT, 1938,  
By THE MACMILLAN COMPANY

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED—NO PART OF THIS BOOK MAY BE  
REPRODUCED IN ANY FORM WITHOUT PERMISSION IN WRITING  
FROM THE PUBLISHER, EXCEPT BY A REVIEWER WHO WISHES  
TO QUOTE BRIEF PASSAGES IN CONNECTION WITH A REVIEW  
WRITTEN FOR INCLUSION IN MAGAZINE OR NEWSPAPER

ALLAMA IQBAL LIBRARY  
454

Published May, 1938  
Second Printing, February, 1939  
Third Printing, April, 1939  
Fourth Printing, November, 1939  
Fifth Printing, December, 1941  
Sixth Printing, December, 1944  
Seventh Printing, July, 1946  
Eighth Printing, July, 1947  
Ninth Printing, June, 1948  
Tenth Printing, November, 1948

371.2  
B.768 I

Ref

SET UP AND ELECTROTYPED BY T. MOREY & SON  
PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA



## PREFACE

This book has grown out of a university course on the improvement of instruction in secondary schools that has been developing for twenty years. It is based on a conviction that supervision as defined and presented is the urgent need of every school and the supreme duty of every principal. Rejecting the too common idea that a supervisor should tell teachers precisely what to do to perform their duties, it advocates that his chief responsibility is to help them grow in professional effectiveness. Instead of corrective supervision it advocates that which is preventive, constructive, promotive, and creative. It proposes a supervisor who with a broad vision is a leader in the coöperative project of professional development of the school staff into a coördinate, unified body. Though it conceives of supervision as a democratic procedure, it does not become fanatical in losing sight of actual conditions and of practical demands.

Supervision is conceived as so fundamental and is presented as so vast and complex that principals, especially beginners and those long accustomed to devote themselves to administrative routines, may be at first discouraged by the immensity of the challenge. But the complexity is somewhat simplified by emphasis on the major structural features, and there is continued emphasis also on a few simple principles that are believed to be fundamental and sound. No leader can expect ever to do all that his vision shows as desirable, but everyone ambitious and earnest to grow into educational leadership can by intelligent and persistent effort learn to do much. Every achievement is just so much progress toward a goal that recedes as one's vision is extended.

This book endeavors to enlarge and dignify the conception of supervision and to indicate the major means of making it effective. It attempts to present an ideal and at the same time to be consistently practical. It is intended no less for the humblest beginner in a school of so few teachers that supervision must perforce be informal and directly personal than for the experienced heads of large urban high schools who must lead by training and coördinating assistants.



Readers will miss the many tabulations, with medians, P.E.'s, and percentages, all neatly graphed, that present the practices in the several parts of the country. Prevailing practices seldom indicate what a supervising principal ought to do. Only those tables are included that contribute to understanding and to direction toward procedures for development of desirable skills. Readers may miss also extensive bibliographies. References are included only as they are needed to direct the ambitious to sources for further practical study.

The words *ought* and *should* appear many times. Apology would be needed for their frequent use if they were not justified by underlying principles. These principles are based not on scientific research, which as yet has made only a limited ancillary contribution to supervision, but on principles which, though simply stated, are properly a part of the fundamental philosophy of secondary education. They must carry their own conviction. There is no "authority" that can give them validity. If they do not receive the sanction of common sense, then the reader is challenged to formulate other principles that do. Without fundamental principles that are sound and consistent there is no likelihood of such growth by teachers in professional unity of effort that a school will steadily grow in social usefulness.

Although it is believed that there are in the book some ideas that are original, or at least not widely known, probably most of the suggestions are of what experienced principals already know or of what any sensible person would know if he took the trouble to think through the problems of improving teachers in service. Many of the suggestions have already been well expressed by others. All of the suggestions are based on a philosophy of common sense, which has been developed and enriched by some experience, much observation, many discussions with those practically responsible for supervision, and wide reading—all interpreted and coördinated by reflection.

There is considerable value to a student of supervision in having presented in large outline a program for the continuous responsibility of improving instruction consistently based on clearly stated principles. This is ultimately more important than a series of practical suggestions. At every suggestion for procedure the reader should ask himself:



1. Is it sound?
2. To what extent can I put it into practice?
3. How can I carry it out in its present form or modified as I think it ought to be?

The exercises at the end of each chapter attempt not merely to increase understanding of what has been presented, but also to direct some practice, by no means all that may be needed, in developing powers that are essential in supervision. Every reader should be alert to present to himself other challenges that are suggested by the several discussions.

The only real value to such a book as this is that it influence and direct principals to improve their practices in supervision. It can indicate what the author thinks ought to be done and it can stimulate a reader to come to conclusions of his own. What the reader does subsequently is his own responsibility. Unless he accepts larger responsibility for supervision, unless he does his work differently and better, the book will have been written in vain.

Acknowledgment is made to the several publishers who have generously granted permission for quotations: D. Appleton and Company; American Book Company; The Clarendon Press; E. P. Dutton and Company; Ginn and Company; D. C. Heath and Company; Henry Holt and Company; Houghton Mifflin Company; Public School Publishing Company; Charles Scribners' Sons; University of Chicago Press.

THOMAS H. BRIGGS

NEW YORK CITY  
March, 1938





# CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. THE MEANING OF SUPERVISION . . . . .	1
II. TYPES AND MEANS OF SUPERVISION . . . . .	20
III. TEACHERS AND SUPERVISION . . . . .	35
IV. ORGANIZATION FOR SUPERVISION . . . . .	54
V. THE PRINCIPAL A RESPONSIBLE LEADER . . . . .	68
VI. THE PRINCIPAL'S RELATIONS WITH OTHERS . . . . .	101
VII. SOME PRINCIPLES OF SUPERVISION . . . . .	132
VIII. PLANNING FOR SUPERVISION . . . . .	161
IX. THE ULTIMATE BASIS OF SUPERVISION . . . . .	191
X. THE GOLDEN RULES OF EDUCATION . . . . .	213
XI. PURPOSES FOR TEACHERS . . . . .	246
XII. PURPOSES FOR PUPILS . . . . .	269
XIII. CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS . . . . .	308
XIV. SUPERVISORY CONFERENCES . . . . .	349
XV. TEACHERS MEETINGS . . . . .	399
XVI. OTHER MEANS OF SUPERVISION . . . . .	459
XVII. MEASUREMENT IN SUPERVISION . . . . .	498
XVIII. SUPERVISORY EXPERIMENTATION . . . . .	550
XIX. EVALUATING SUPERVISION . . . . .	571
INDEX . . . . .	581



## DATE LABEL


Call No..... *192-145 0914* Date..... *12:4:55*.....  
 Account No..... ~~10007~~

### J. & K. UNIVERSITY LIBRARY

This book should be returned on or before the last stamped <sup>date</sup> above.  
 An overdue charges of 6 nP. will be levied for each day. ~~1~~ The book is  
 kept beyond that day.



# IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

## CHAPTER I

---

### THE MEANING OF SUPERVISION

---

A machine is bought to do certain very definite things. Though by the addition of gadgets its effectiveness may to a small extent be increased and the scope of its functions may be slightly enlarged, everyone expects in time a gradual deterioration. When a person is employed to teach school, however, the case is very different. He has been somewhat prepared for the job, but he can never be adequately prepared beforehand, for the challenges are constantly changing. He cannot remain at one standard of efficiency, for each new crop of pupils varies daily and there are inevitable, even though gradual, changes in the community and in civilization. If a teacher is prepared like a machine, he will tend to act like a machine, doing his work satisfactorily only when the situation that he was adjusted to meet is unvarying. Confronted by new situations, he is thrown out of gear; and though his engine may continue to run, the machine does no effective work. Human energies must find an outlet, else powers atrophy. Sometimes the energies that a teacher has at the beginning direct themselves to activities outside the school; sometimes, hampered by routines of little significance, they weaken until there is finally left only a fraction of the original potentiality.

What would it not mean to a school and consequently to civilization if the energies of teachers were steadily directed to outlets leading continuously to the most effective education! If a principal could give them proper direction and each year add even a small per cent to the growth of every teacher in effectiveness, he would justify himself many times over, even though he performed no other duties. Each unit of growth is



cumulative; it invites and facilitates more growth. And many units of growth in teachers make the principal grow too—or his heels will be chafed by the toes of those pressing on behind him.

Business has found supervision a wise investment and a necessity. In every factory there are foremen to supervise the workmen, and a superintendent to supervise the foremen. In every large store and in every large telephone office there are supervisors to teach the employees their jobs and to keep them at the desired standards of efficiency. The duties of such workers are relatively simple as compared with the complex and delicate human materials worked with to induce the kinds of growth that contribute to the happiness of mankind. Neither the effectiveness of teachers nor their steady growth in effectiveness can be expected without the most skilled and persistent supervision.

Supervision cannot properly be defined in terms of the techniques it uses; rather it must be defined in terms of the purposes for which it is used, purposes that give significance to the means. In general, supervision means to coördinate, stimulate, and direct the growth of teachers in the power to stimulate and direct the growth of every individual pupil through the exercise of his talents toward the richest and most intelligent participation in the civilization in which he lives. Supervision aims at “the development of a group of professional workers who, free from the control of tradition and actuated by a spirit of enquiry, attack their problems scientifically in an environment in which men and women of high professional ideals may live a vigorous, intelligent, creative life.”<sup>1</sup> It is with the means of achieving this high objective that the following chapters are concerned. “The supervisor,” says C. R. Maxwell, “must have an ideal of an end which he wishes to accomplish, an ideal of the methods by which the goal will be best attained, and an idea of the obstacles which must be overcome in adjusting means to reach the end.”

**The Purposes of Supervision.**—It is difficult, if not impossible, to present succinctly all of the purposes of supervision so that they will seem altogether inclusive. The following list,

<sup>1</sup> *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, p. 344. Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1930.



however, will prove at least suggestive to the principal who is preparing a comprehensive program of supervision. By keeping in mind the general purpose that has already been proposed, he will be able to supplement this list according to his need. Only a few specific purposes can wisely be sought at a time by intensive effort, but each one involves and is supplemented by others, so that all should be kept in mind. Each one approved will contribute later to the effectiveness of many supervisory activities.

1. *To develop understanding of the place of education in our civilization and of the special functions of secondary education.* No amount of skill in the techniques of administration and of teaching can lead to maximum effectiveness unless planned with the ideal of our society clearly and steadily in mind. The philosophy of society has often been too abstract to affect the daily work of teachers, and in consequence the schools have been remote from the real purposes for which theoretically they were established and maintained. Although there may be a lack of agreement on precisely what is the philosophy of the society in which we live, the principal, the responsible leader of the faculty, should have at least a working understanding of what is generally accepted. And this he must share with the teachers, accepting such modification as they cogently propose, in order that their work may have the soundest foundation possible. Even though this philosophy cannot be developed completely in any secondary school faculty, every approximation to understanding and acceptance leads to a more intelligent program of work by every teacher. The extent to which this purpose is sought will be limited by the competence of the principal and by the intellectual maturity of the teachers, but in no school should it be neglected.<sup>1</sup> Although a principal can be of much service in improving instruction without knowledge of the philosophy of society, he can build the soundest foundation for the development of his professional self and the program of the school only by attempting to understand and to use it.

Similarly the special functions of the secondary school, with its responsibility for contributing to the welfare of society,

<sup>1</sup> One helpful reference for beginning a study of the philosophy of our society is *The Social-Economic Goals for America*, National Education Association, 1934.



should be understood by every faculty. Obviously such functions cannot be developed unless an accepted philosophy of our civilization is first understood, but it is not difficult to build up at least a beginning realization of what the special functions should be. They will be one thing under fascism and another under democracy. Without agreement on them, teachers can make the school contribute effectively to neither; it will continue to be influenced by the decreasingly meaningful traditions of the past more than by the significant hopes for the future. These functions are discussed at some length in the report of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education.<sup>1</sup>

2. *To enlarge the teachers' concept of the meaning of education.* Secondary school teachers are likely to emphasize in their thinking the mastery of a determined body of subject-matter as the objective of education, whereas this is, or should be, merely a means to an end. Education is far more comprehensive than intellectual learning, however important that may be. It includes physical, aesthetic, emotional, and moral development as well, and frequently the concomitant learnings in classrooms are more important than what is prescribed in the course of study. No education is of real significance unless it eventuates in a changed life; therefore teaching should always look beyond learning to its application. Keeping teachers' attention focused on the purposes of education—first the ultimate and then the contributing immediate purposes—is fundamental to good supervision. These purposes give meaning to the experiences in education and to the methods employed.

3. *To bring about a consciousness on the part of teachers of the problems that youth have in attempting to become effective members of society, and to help teachers continuously to help youth in solving these problems.* Adults tend to forget what the aspirations and problems of youth are, and as they change it is difficult for many teachers to get a sympathetic understanding of them. But it is highly important that teachers should not only realize youth's aspirations and problems but also that they be sympathetic with them. No one can be taught effectively unless he is understood; no one is really receptive of teaching unless he believes the teacher sympathizes with him in his ideals and ambi-

<sup>1</sup> *Bulletin 64*, Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, January, 1937.



tions, and appreciates the difficulties he must surmount. The principal can contribute greatly to the creation of a hospitable atmosphere for education if he continually attempts to stimulate teachers to learn youth's aspirations before striving to substitute higher ones, and to realize the problems youth faces before developing acceptable solutions. In the truest sense, no one can solve another person's problems. But teachers can help youth so to solve immediate problems that they learn how better to solve later ones for themselves. Such help is possible only if the problems are first understood. The supervisor should constantly help teachers to keep in mind that the ultimate end is the fitting of youth into the society in which he is to live.

4. *To bring about a realization of local conditions and needs.* Education is not abstract from the community. It cannot be effectively and fully outlined by "authorities" who are remote from the conditions in which it is to be given. Though perhaps less than in the more elementary grades, secondary education should be highly concerned that its program contributes to the satisfaction of needs local in nature. Every community does not afford grand opera at first hand or museums of art and science, but every community does have its own interests and needs in the fields of music, art, and science; and unless these are kept in mind education will tend to concern itself exclusively with the contingent needs of those citizens who may possibly move to the richer cities. Many small communities have impoverished themselves by furnishing an education that only fires youth to move away to richer fields, instead of making the most of local conditions or improving them. The greater the possibilities of contributing to the betterment of the local community, the less likely individuals are to migrate. The supervisor has an opportunity for large service by keeping before teachers a realization of local conditions and needs and also the environment that affects the learning by each boy and each girl. The principal may not know the community as well as some of the teachers do, but he can perform this service nevertheless.

5. *To unify the teachers into a team, all working with intelligent and appreciative coöperation to achieve the same general goals.* Like many other professional people, teachers are highly individualistic. The organization and administration of secondary



schools especially tend to make them so. One teacher is employed to teach mathematics, another to teach music; and their work confines them for most of the school day in separate rooms with pupils who pass at the ringing of a bell to other uncorrelated fields of learning. And yet all teachers are expected to seek the same general educative goals. Teamwork will result only if the supervisor keeps these goals constantly before all the teachers, if he leads each one to direct his work constantly toward them, if he makes it possible for each teacher to know and respect the plans and contributions of all the others, and if he stimulates coöperation of every possible kind. One of the most disintegrating influences in secondary schools today is the relative ignorance and the consequent disrespect that some teachers have for the work of others in different curriculum fields. For an effective school to function the teachers must have the same educational goals, a community of interests and problems, and mutual respect, all of which lead to closer correlation and coöperation.

6. *To ascertain the work in which each teacher is most successful and in which he is capable of most growth toward still greater successes.* As will be argued at more length later, the highest achievement of a school is effected rather by the capitalization of peculiar strengths than by the building up of weaknesses. Every person is weak in some respects, and though he can be helped in a measurable degree to overcome some weaknesses, he is not likely to be outstandingly successful because of this kind of growth. To this statement there are of course exceptions, especially in the case of some beginning teachers. Every person, too, has peculiar strengths and aptitudes, the direction and development of which will make him of the greatest possible worth to the school. One developed strength is worth a dozen improved weaknesses.

It is a prime duty of the principal first to discover what talents a teacher possesses or the respects in which he has the greatest possibilities of growth, and then to make such assignment as will give the maximum opportunity for the exercise and growth of these potentialities. Discovery may lead to the reassignment of a teacher to another subject or to another group of pupils—the backward or the bright, the young or the mature, the wayward or the well-behaved—with whom he is likely to be



most effective. More often it will merely indicate an activity that may be encouraged and directed within the existent assignment. One teacher may show unusual strength or promise in diagnosing pupils' difficulties and helping them where help is most needed, another may be successful in putting heart into discouraged pupils or stimulating the lazy or the ambitious, and another may be especially skillful in the techniques of teaching. Often teachers are not aware of their peculiar gifts, which may be discovered by a penetrating observer. When they are led to appreciate their own power and possibilities, they inevitably feel a consequent ambition and responsiveness to such help as can be given. When a principal finds especial capabilities in a teacher, he has an opportunity and a challenge not only to encourage but also to give them such stimulation and direction as he is capable of devising.

7. *To induct new teachers into the school and into the profession.* Recall of one's own experience or observation of the experiences of others when entering a classroom for the first time as teachers will bring a realization of the importance of this purpose. "Beginning teachers are apt to be harassed by the least important details of their work. They practice the art of teaching not infrequently out of an experience in the classrooms in which they were pupils. It is difficult for them to carry their philosophy of education or their knowledge of the science of teaching into their own classroom procedures. They become slaves to routine; they may not appreciate their own strength. Their professional life is dependent upon a sympathetic leader who guides, restrains, and stimulates them during their period of probation."<sup>1</sup> If a beginning teacher is prepared for his specific work and inducted into it with courage and confidence, many difficulties will be avoided later. The help that a principal can give before teaching begins and during its early stages will pay dividends during the teacher's entire career, not only in greater effectiveness but also in greater receptivity to later help that will be available.

8. *To translate theory into practice.* It is not difficult to learn verbal statements of the theory of education and the techniques of teaching, but it is quite another thing to put them into prac-

<sup>1</sup> *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, p. 10. Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1930.



tice, especially to make the practice habitual. The principal as a supervisor must first see that satisfactory theories are both understood and accepted, and then he has an unending responsibility to help teachers translate them into practice. He will need to use group meetings, individual conferences, and all the other means of supervision at his disposal. It is not to be expected that he has either the knowledge of subject-matter or the skill to translate theory into practical plans in every field, but he does have the responsibility to encourage and stimulate each teacher under his direction to do this.

9. *To furnish immediate help with difficulties that threaten disaster.* The implication in this statement is that many of the difficulties experienced by teachers are quite natural and relatively unimportant. Some of them will be overcome in time by the teachers' own ingenuity; attention to others can be safely postponed in favor of more important constructive supervision. But there are difficulties, some of which the teachers do not themselves realize, that not only endanger the teacher's effectiveness but also undermine the effectiveness of the entire program. Minor ones can often be cleared up by a suggestion or even by arbitrary direction. What teacher does not recall the gratitude felt when his principal gave him immediate help in a time of trouble? Other major difficulties may require extended coöperative work by both principal and teacher. "There is an obligation, whenever the teacher has failed, for the supervisor to present, both theoretically and through some sort of demonstration, the successful procedure." Sometimes it is wise to avoid difficulties altogether by the transfer of troublesome pupils to a class in which they may be better cared for.

The source of difficulty is usually in those teachers who are not bad enough to be discharged before the end of the year and yet not promising enough to be retained permanently. As they will continue in the school at least for several months, the wise principal will afford such immediate help as he can in justice to his other obligations; but when his judgment of the weakness and lack of promise in a teacher is finally determined, he should not allow any mawkish sentiment to force him into giving an inordinate amount of his time to the hopeless effort. He would very much better till more fertile soil. Help to teachers who



are weak in some respects but strong and promising in others will result in a far greater yield.

10. *To make teachers receptive to help.* The first step in achieving this purpose is to make teachers conscious of their opportunities and their consequent needs. This consciousness often exists in respect to such matters as the need of help to get better attention and study from pupils, to make better assignments, or to frame better questions. But the greater need of making a subject contribute to the larger ends of education and to the betterment of the community will emerge after purposes earlier discussed are sought. Other needs will be revealed in observation and in conferences. A consciousness of need is not sufficient, however. To be receptive to help teachers must realize the harm that results from inefficiency in any degree, the opportunities for more effective achievement, and the competence of the supervisor. The appreciation of competence will come only from demonstration. Help in one need makes possible help in others. The principal may well be content to begin simply with help in some matter that he considers not highly important but on which he feels an assured competence, in order to make a teacher hospitable in more important needs. Supervisory help should seldom be considered as something handed down; it should rather come from coöperation by the teacher and principal in an attempt to devise means for making the work better and more assuredly effective of the objectives of education.

11. *To help teachers to analyze critically their own activities.* No help from an outside source is likely to be of lasting value. The only means of steady and continuous growth on the part of a teacher results from ability to recognize needs and opportunities and to plan for the future in terms of ideals and general principles. It is more difficult, as a rule, to analyze one's own activities and appraise their strength and weakness than to analyze another's. Therefore the supervisor, knowing the principles of education and experienced in observation, can be of great help to a teacher by discussing his work and gradually developing with him a pattern for analysis. This will be facilitated in some instances by the use of check lists and rating sheets prepared by others, but it is most likely to be used if coöperatively made in light of approved and accepted principles of good teaching. Even then the teacher will need repeated



help in learning to apply this honestly in analysis of his own teaching. Help can best be given in the conference following one or more observations.

12. *To make teachers ambitious to grow into the greatest possible professional effectiveness.* The best beginning for the achievement of this purpose is not to emphasize present weaknesses but rather to present the ideal and the possibilities. Here is the opportunity to use demonstration lessons, directed visits to observe superior teaching, and literature that reports unusually good practices. If the principal will set up by all possible means an appreciation of effective teaching, either as practiced by others or as possible theoretically, he will have laid the foundation for helping teachers build their own ambitions. The ideal should not at first be set so high as to result in discouragement; it should be gradually developed to make every teacher willing and eager to take the next step forward. This means that advance will be now in one detail of teaching, now in another. One does not grow in teaching effectiveness, any more than in morals, by moving forward the whole front simultaneously. However effective example may be, one can safely argue that the best stimulus to professional ambition results from appreciation of possibilities that exist in the ideal accepted for education.

13. *To help teachers plan a long-term program of growth.* After the stimulus to professional growth has become effective and effort has produced results in concrete instances, a teacher should be ready to plan a program extending over several years. If the principal has been alert to discover the teacher's special aptitudes, he will be enabled out of wider experience and knowledge to give counsel as to the directions in which the growth should be encouraged and as to the sources of greatest possible help. These sources may be the principal himself working coöperatively with the teacher, especially on simple experiments that can be conducted with the classes in hand, study of available literature in extension classes or summer schools, or directed visiting to observe the skilled work of other teachers or their ventures into new fields of subject-matter, method, guidance, and social direction. Real talent, however humble, when coupled with an aroused ambition should have a plan extending far into professional life.



14. *To stimulate cultural growth.* Every person who is a teacher is also an individual with an intellectual and aesthetic life outside the schoolroom. The richer this life, the happier he will be and the more effective his teaching can become. Every teacher should be so in love with the subject to which he is assigned that stimulation to further study in the field far beyond that demanded in the classroom should not be difficult. Evidence of interest in the field repeatedly expressed by the principal, sincere questions asked, and contacts made for the teacher with others who have interest and expert knowledge will go far toward awakening even a dormant ambition. When teachers make a hobby of intellectual life, whether or not directly related to the field of teaching, they accumulate a store of knowledge and an enthusiasm that not only enriches their teaching but also arouses ambition in many of their pupils. Interests beget interests, and a teacher without enthusiasms has little chance of kindling a flame in the boys and girls assigned to him.

15. *To ascertain and bring about needed changes in organization and administration that will facilitate effective teaching.* Neither organization nor administration has importance except as they contribute to the educational effectiveness of the school. It should be the duty of a principal to be constantly on the lookout for defects of both that hamper good teaching and for changes that will facilitate improvement. In observation of classroom instruction no less than from teachers' complaints and suggestions, he will learn how better to organize the school and to make changes in administration that will remove obstacles or irritations and clear the road for the teacher. It may be a matter of supplies or using the library and laboratories or the passing of classes or making reports, or any one of the dozens of details so frequently entered on score cards without considering the influence on a teacher's state of mind or contribution to learning.

16. *To help teachers to improve their techniques of teaching.* After teachers have come to realize their need for improvement and to appreciate some ideals of skillful instruction, they will be receptive to help in improving themselves. Every teacher has his own needs, but those most receptive to help from the principal are the ones who look for further growth in manifested



or promising qualities rather than remedies for weaknesses. The more important matters demanding attention are the selection of materials of instruction for enriching the experience of the pupils, its arrangement into units of learning, types of teaching, assignments, directed study, exposition and explanation, with effective use of illustrations, questioning, drill for mastery and retention, measurement of results, and applications to some kinds of satisfactory use. In improving such techniques teachers can be helped and directed by groups, but eventually the principal will have to work with individuals, who may manifest peculiar difficulties or unusual promise.

17. *To direct teachers toward unfamiliar sources of immediate aid and of material for continuing growth.* Every teacher will know many sources from which he can gain help for an immediate definite need and assistance in his program of continuing professional growth, but his information is likely to be limited and in many cases lacking in progressive expansion. It is not to be expected that the principal will have as much knowledge of sources of aid peculiar to every specialized field as the teachers, but by his professional reading and wide observations, in other schools as well as in his own, he will come across many sources with which a teacher needing help will not be familiar. Gradually he accumulates a record that will prove an invaluable source of rich suggestions. From this record he can draw at need for important supervisory help.

18. *To measure the results of each teacher's activities in terms of pupil growth toward approved ideals.* In measuring a teacher's professional progress the principal is in a true sense also measuring his own effectiveness as a supervisor. Supervision without effects manifested in improved teaching is as futile as instruction without learning. Of course there are no accurate measures of the success of either teaching or supervision, but there are numerous means of making significant estimates. Even though these are largely subjective judgments, they are significant,—indeed, such judgments are constantly used without hesitation in rating teachers for retention, promotion, or discharge. But subjective judgments should be based on all the available evidence, as objective as that can be made. A study of the accumulated notes on observations and conferences, a review of the manifestations of initiative, ingenuity, and industry by each



teacher, a consideration of his attitude and enthusiasm for work should all be helpful. If the principal can find objective tests that will give reliable data on the achievement of similarly able pupils before and after a teacher has been helped, they should also be used, with full understanding that no such tests reveal all the desired information. The significant purpose is that the principal shall make as sincere an effort to measure the success of his supervision as he does to measure the success of a teacher's instruction. Only when he has arrived at the soundest judgment possible will he be in a position critically to examine his own program and to plan for its improvement.

Another purpose in measuring achievement by pupils is to learn of their needs, efforts, and progress so that the supervisory and teaching programs for the future can be more wisely made. Although supervision deals for the most part directly with teachers, it always has in mind the pupils' more effective growth through directed effort. When the principal and the teacher study the records of pupil progress not merely are they enabled to judge the effectiveness of the program being pursued, but they get much evidence indicating changes that should be made. Moreover, they have their attention directed to individual variations that point to the need for help of each youth according to his peculiar characteristics.

19. *To assist teachers in diagnosing pupil needs and to help in planning for growth in power to satisfy them.* It is one thing to accumulate data and quite another to interpret them so that a modified procedure is indicated. By repeated experience, if not by special training, a principal can learn how to make needed interpretation and consequent plans probably better than any teacher, certainly better than the average. Together the principal and teachers should study the problem of diagnostic testing, learn the techniques developed for getting accurate indications of individual needs, and then agree on the program that seems wise. In group meetings the results of one or more tests may well be considered and the question of their significance raised. After a few such illustrations each teacher will be both informed and probably more receptive to individual help. Suppose the data show that half the class have mastered a certain skill and that the others have made progress varying from almost nothing to near-mastery. What is to be done? Clearly



advanced or collateral work is indicated for the successful half, and, if the skill is essential or even important, remedial work for the others. The nature of this remedial work should be determined only after the individual causes of difficulty are learned. Study of these causes should lead not only to highly individualized plans for assistance but also to modifications of future mass teaching of the same or a similar topic. Many teachers need much help to see all this and to prepare plans for greater effectiveness in the future.

For most situations, scientifically devised objective tests for the purpose of diagnosis are not available. In some instances of need the teachers may be stimulated to devise, with the help of the supervisor or of some peculiarly interested and skilled individual in the corps, home-made tests, using the principles and the devices made familiar by study of the work of experts. In other instances less ambitious and less accurate measures will have to be used. The important contribution by the supervisor is a continuous insistence on the need to ascertain the peculiar accomplishments, the peculiar weaknesses and strengths, of each and every girl and boy, and on the necessity of improving individual accomplishment according to capacity. Education may be offered in the mass; it is gained by individuals. Average accomplishment is of small importance, for after leaving school the members of a class will not be judged by what the group did or can do. The principal should constantly emphasize the necessity of individual success, brought about by any device that the ingenuity of teachers has devised or can invent.

20. *To use all possible means of enlarging vision and of increasing effectiveness.* Studies have shown that the individual principal tends to use, or at least to emphasize, only one or two of the important means of supervision. Some even boast that they "select good teachers and expect them without interference to do good work," evidencing a narrow and erroneous conception of their professional function. Others use chiefly observation and the individual conference. These are important, of course, but they should be supplemented by teachers meetings, of the whole faculty or of smaller groups with similar interest and needs, directed study and reading, institutes and conventions, directed visiting, demonstration lessons, and the



like. Although the individual conference is the most important means of helping teachers to improve instruction, others have their peculiar contributions to make. All of these means will be discussed more at length later in this book.<sup>1</sup>

21. *To help teachers learn to make their own experiences more profitable.* This purpose has been so well expressed in *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision* that the exposition there given is quoted without further comment.

In every school system in the United States, there are teachers whose insight and achievement have been wasted because of lack of discerning supervision. It is the obligation of the supervisor to discover successful performances and to give them meaning by interpreting them in relation to the philosophy of education and to scientific inquiry. Many a teacher cannot reproduce his most successful performance, because it has not been clearly interpreted for him. The supervisor has an obligation to become sufficiently acquainted with the work that his teachers are doing to discover whatever strength or skill they possess. It is possible that skill in one field of work can be transferred to another, if the teacher has been made conscious of the principle involved in his performance. It is quite as true that teachers can learn from one another through observation of work that is exceptionally well done. A very great increase in the efficiency of the work of any school system would occur if the successes of all teachers were made available for the whole corps.<sup>2</sup>

22. *To popularize the school program, especially its successes, so that the public will be more understanding and sympathetically helpful.* The public knows too little of its secondary schools. It is probably true that the people of a given community know more about the high school building and the extra-curricula activities of the pupils than they know about any elementary school, but they have little information about the educational program. In far too many instances the public is critical in its attitude, thinking that the modern school is merely a continuance of the traditional institution; in others they are apathetic. Both attitudes are bad in that they result in a lack of support in the time of need. The public has a right to know what the high school is attempting, for it is their money that supports it and it is their children who are being prepared to make a better

<sup>1</sup> See the Index.

<sup>2</sup> *Op. cit.*, p. 11.



society. The principal has a distinct obligation to devise with the help of the faculty a program that is justifiable to the public mind, and to popularize not only the general features but also important and interesting details. The latter he can do largely by personal contacts with individuals, contacts that are made also by the teachers who have been convinced in faculty meetings of the importance of the obligation and who have agreed on what can be most wisely presented to increase public understanding and sympathy. This coöperative planning for a campaign of publicity is highly important. The principal and able teachers can also write articles for the newspapers, address meetings of civic organizations and of parent-teacher associations, prepare exhibits for use in store windows and elsewhere, and persuade adults of the community to visit the school during its regular sessions or occasionally at a specially arranged evening session. The matter of first importance is, of course, to have an educational program that can be made to seem of convincing value to the public. Only then is it worthwhile to popularize it with the expectation that an informed public will be sympathetically helpful.

23. *To share with the public the problems of the school so as to get suggestions for their solution.* The too-common attitude that what the secondary school does is a matter only of professional concern assumes that all of the problems are technical and that the common sense of the community has no advice of value to be sought. Neither assumption is justifiable. The technical problems of education should be attacked solely by the profession, and any attempt by laymen to influence their solution should be vigorously fought. But probably the most important problems before secondary education today are not highly technical, and the solutions proposed by teachers and administrators are based on common sense rather than on technical information. The profession has no monopoly on common sense. Therefore there is much to be gained by frankly going before the public and saying, "Here are some problems which confront us. What suggestions have you that will help?" There will result not only many suggestions of practical value but also an increased public understanding, sympathy, and support. It is not to be expected that all suggestions will be good, and tact will need to be exercised in rejection; but it is



reasonable to assume that the advantages of sharing school problems with the public will be many. Final decision as to what shall be done will, however, rest with the faculty.

24. *To protect teachers from unreasonable demands by the public on their time and energies.* The characteristics that led to the selection of teachers for work in the school also lead the public to invite them to participate in many other activities of the community. Sometimes the invitation becomes an embarrassing insistence. Teachers will wish to participate in community life, of course, and they should do so for their own pleasure and satisfaction, just as any other citizen. But it is a sound principle that a teacher should not be made to assume outside obligations merely because he or she is employed by the community. He has no more obligations in such matters than a policeman or the mayor or the mayor's secretary. This principle is not generally understood, however, and it is violated in practice many times by the insistence of those who wish to promote some non-public enterprise, usually a laudable one in itself. When a teacher does not wish to participate in these activities or when doing so would unduly tax his strength or otherwise weaken his effectiveness in the classroom, the principal should protect him from being forced to accede to the demands or from suffering embarrassment through refusal. He can best do this usually by explanation to those who present the invitation or make the demands; but sometimes it may be necessary for the protection of the teacher that the principal officially forbid acceptance. In this extremity he will, of course, be wise first to secure the support of the superintendent or of the board of education. The effectiveness of the work of the teacher in the school should always be the first consideration.

25. *To protect teachers from criticisms.* Even the best of teachers will be criticized, sometimes justly, by the public, especially by parents who have children in the school. Sometimes these criticisms are accompanied by an attack the violence of which may prove disastrous either by impairing the teacher's spirit or by undermining his influence. When criticism is made to the principal he will, of course, give it a full and fair hearing. He will want to know what is bad in practice, but he will usually be wise at the same time to elicit from the critic expressions of appreciation of good characteristics and practices.



Whether the criticism is just or not, the principal will as a rule do well to keep the critic away from the teacher, at least until the fires of emotion have burned themselves out. If the criticism is sound, he will have to decide whether it is of sufficient importance to justify his passing it on then or later to the teacher with his suggestions for removing the cause. Even justifiable criticism of an important professional matter may often be withheld from the teacher until a propitious time or until it fits in with the larger supervisory program. There is little profit in stirring a teacher emotionally so that his effectiveness is temporarily impaired, and the value of outside criticism may be lessened if it is conveyed before the teacher is ready to assimilate it. Usually the best procedure is to remove the cause of just criticism without making the teacher aware that there has been complaint. Occasionally, of course, the best procedure is to shock a recalcitrant or unreceptive teacher with the criticism and to challenge him to remove the cause.

When the principal is aware of criticism that is not made directly to him, his task is far more difficult. Again he should consider it fairly, but he must not forget that he is a protector of the teacher because he is responsible for the greatest efficiency of the school, and efficiency is as a rule not promoted by a teacher who is harried by criticism. The principal has to decide whether he will ignore the criticism, trusting that it will naturally die out, or whether he will seek its source and by various means endeavor to stop it. Criticism of the teacher as a teacher is much easier to take care of than criticism of the teacher as a social being. But the principal has an obligation, when either kind of criticism is being made, to protect the teacher, to prevent his becoming so upset that his work suffers or his influence is undermined, and he should seek to remove the cause or so to popularize virtues that the activity complained of will seem of relative insignificance.

26. *To develop a professional esprit de corps.* Without a good *esprit de corps* there can be no good school. Individual teachers may work conscientiously in isolation, but they cannot make the school an effective educational agency unless they work coöperatively and harmoniously toward commonly approved aims. Disgruntled teachers are effective neither as individuals nor as members of a team. The principal cannot create a spirit



of morale and contribute it to a school, but he can lead teachers to develop it for themselves. Persistent morale is never the result of a benevolence or of wishful thinking; it is something that grows. The development of morale is facilitated if the principal exerts himself to discover and to remove, or at least to ameliorate, the causes of unhappiness, uneasiness, or anxiety; it is forwarded by an attractive, vigorous personality that manifests competence as well as sympathetic coöperation; but it is best achieved by teachers believing in the importance of their jobs, clear-minded as to what the objectives are, conscious of ability to accept at least a part of the possible responsibility with success, and mutually respectful each of the others' sincerity, competence, and reliability. It is easily seen that the principal has a critical and a continuous challenge to lead teachers to the gradual development of a professional *esprit de corps*. Without it supervision can be effective only with the greatest difficulty; but good supervision facilitates the development of morale, as it in turn is facilitated by it. They are mutually dependent.

### EXERCISES

1. Criticize the definition given of supervision. If in any respects it fails to conform to your own conception, what changes are needed, either in the definition or in your own concept?
2. What of the stated purposes of supervision do you consider of basic importance? What is the significance of the others in a program of improving instruction?
3. Which of the stated purposes do you intend to seek first in the job that you next have? What are your present plans for achieving them?
4. Which of the purposes do you think are sought consistently by the principals whom you know best? Do you think common practice invalidates the importance of the neglected purposes?



## CHAPTER II

---

### TYPES AND MEANS OF SUPERVISION

---

**Types of Supervision and of Supervisors.**—There have been many picturesque classifications of supervisors. Various writers have discussed them as “leave-alone” administrators, as inspectors, as “snoopervisors,” as “pseudovisors,” as authoritative dictators, as magnetic persuaders, as optimistic impressionists, as destructive cynics, as scientific measurers, as philosophic teachers, and as coöperative leaders. Each classification serves as a basis of presenting condemnatory criticism or commendation; but, by the definition and purposes of supervision previously given and further to be developed in this book, the mere administrator and the inspector are excluded from classification as supervisors, and instead of belaboring poor supervision it seems better to elaborate the characteristics of good supervision.

In general supervision may conveniently be classified into four types, each of which will be briefly discussed.

1. *Corrective supervision.* It is easy to find faults, but difficult to see them in their relative values. Each fault discovered tends to loom large at the moment out of all proportion to its importance and significance in the total situation. The supervisor who goes into a classroom with the intention of finding what is wrong is invariably successful, and he will usually think that his discoveries must have immediate attention or the whole structure of education will fall. This attitude results in criticism that emphasizes poor physical posture, the mispronunciation of words, calling a pupil's name before asking him a question, and other practices which, while improvable, do not invalidate the teaching. It makes the supervisor dissatisfied and the teacher unhappy. It tends to neglect the possibilities of greatest growth by the teacher and to furnish neither stimulus nor direction. It is an almost insuperable obstacle to constructive supervision.



It must not be thought that corrective supervision is unimportant. It is the kind that most teachers want, partly because they are most conscious of immediate needs and partly because they have no conception of any other kind. Without deprecating it unduly, the supervisor should not be on the lookout primarily for faults and he should make a continuous effort to see each fault in its true place in the whole process of education and in the general plan of supervision. Some faults can be overlooked as trivial, some can be remembered for later attention, some can be corrected by informal and incidental comment, while some are so important that they must be given serious and constructive attention lest they permanently invalidate the teacher's effectiveness.

If the fault observed or reported seems sufficiently important, it can be given immediate attention or used later to make the teacher receptive to a constructive program of help toward professional growth. Help may be immediate and direct or deferred and indirect. If the fault is of minor importance, the supervisor should make it seem such—Macaulay's speck of dirt on an otherwise impeccable shirt front—a fault to be removed because it spoils the general good effect. A teacher can usually be helped to eradicate such faults by being told of them, preferably not in a formal conference but incidentally, perhaps with a touch of humor (not ridicule), and given a definite prescription for getting rid of them. If the fault is a major one, it will seldom yield to such treatment. A leaning tower will usually need a reconstruction of at least a part of its foundations. A major fault will therefore usually need to be approached indirectly. It may not even be mentioned to the teacher, but the supervisor will start with some fundamental principle of education or of the techniques of teaching and help the teacher build a good habit to supersede the old weakness.

2. *Preventive supervision.*<sup>1</sup> From his own experience in classrooms and from his observation of other teachers at work the supervisor can be reasonably sure that certain difficulties will confront every new teacher in a school. If he is a careful observer, he can detect in his visits to classes signs that indicate

<sup>1</sup> On this topic see two articles in the Second Yearbook of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction: Douglas Waples, "Difficulties as a Basis of Supervision," 77-105; and E. M. Hanson, "Classroom Difficulties of Student Teachers," 106-129.



the accumulation of factors which inevitably result in trouble for almost every teacher in the corps, experienced as well as inexperienced. They may be caused by weaknesses in the teacher or by elements for which he is in no way responsible. However caused, it is the part of wisdom for him to anticipate a teacher's difficulties, so far as possible to prevent them from coming to a head, to minimize their effects, and above all to help the teacher strengthen himself so that he is competent to cope with them successfully.

The supervisor's procedure when he detects signs of approaching trouble will differ with the personalities, the strength, and the self-confidence of the teachers. With some he can safely explain the situation and coöperatively plan to prevent the occurrence of the anticipated difficulty or to develop procedures for meeting it successfully. To do this with others would unduly alarm them or else set up in them attitudes that might militate against the desired preparation. Ordinarily it will be better for the supervisor to keep his anticipations to himself and not to suggest that he suspects incompetence or a lack of readiness on the part of a teacher to meet any situation that may arise. In some instances he may lead a teacher by questions and suggestions imaginatively to follow a chain of events into the future and thus to discover for himself what is likely to cause embarrassment if not prevented.

Preparation may be made by developing in the teacher a thorough understanding and a deep-seated faith in a principle which, when applied, will prevent or overcome the anticipated difficulty. When this preparation is attempted the teacher will in all probability need considerable directed practice in applying the principle to other and similar situations. The chief advantage of this preparation is that it is likely to be useful for many other applications. With some teachers the supervisor may feel it wise to tell how another teacher has successfully met the same or a similar difficulty, or to send the teacher to read some pertinent literature or observe how the difficulty is cared for in another school. He may even discuss with the teacher a hypothetical situation in which the anticipated difficulty appears and lead him to develop a plan that promises to take care of it.

Preventive supervision keeps a teacher from losing his self-confidence through failure to meet an unexpected situation



successfully. It enables him to retain the respect of his pupils. A teacher who has lost his own self-confidence or the respect of his pupils presents one of the most difficult challenges that the supervisor ever has to meet. It is far easier to develop the strength of a person who is reasonably well than it is to nurse him back to health and then attempt to aid his development. Preventive supervision helps a teacher retain faith in himself, courage, and professional ambition because he feels that his supervisor has seen his successes and believes they can be repeated and continued. Because of these results he is more ready to meet new challenges and more likely to succeed in the future.

3. *Constructive supervision.* Supervision is not faultfinding; it is not merely the correction of faults. No fault should ever be mentioned until the supervisor has a suggestion for its correction or a plan to propose that will lead to a remedy. In other words, supervision should always be constructive. As argued in the preceding paragraphs, supervision is at times concerned with the correction of poor practices, minor or major; but it should not stop there. As a matter of fact, it should seldom start there. The best beginning of supervision is in a vision of what education should be and of the means that will make it maximally possible. The eyes of both supervisor and teacher should be kept fixed on the future rather than on the past. The healthiest procedure is to induce growth rather than to remove defects. There is no material profit in getting rid of all one's defects unless there is remaining an abundance of healthy growing tissue.

Constructive supervision does replace poor practices with better ones, but it also seeks a steady growth in the power to perform better the activities already well performed. No teacher ever became able and outstanding merely by getting rid of his faults; no school ever became effective and famous by having teachers with no faults and with an equal number of virtues. Teachers are happier and stronger by healthy development than they are while suffering pedagogic amputations. The wise supervisor will, then, attempt to share with the teachers his vision of what good teaching should be, and he will stimulate, encourage, and direct them to grow in competence to make it real.



4. *Creative supervision*.<sup>1</sup> Creative supervision differs from the constructive only in its emphasis on the attempt to free teachers for the largest possible contribution that they can by ingenuity devise for more effectively achieving the ends of education. "The chief purpose of all classroom supervision . . .," writes Cubberley, "is that of liberating the teacher, freeing her from set procedures and definite prescriptions, and developing her, so far as possible, into a master teacher for the school system."

Every teacher can profit to a certain extent from the example and the advice of others on directing learning; but at the same time, for every teacher, or for nearly everyone, there are methods peculiarly suitable for unusual effectiveness. One teacher can succeed best with a highly socialized form of recitation; another of different temperament, personality, and training would either fail in the attempt to use it or be much less effective than with another type of procedure. It is far wiser to free each teacher, so far as freedom does not contradict the approved philosophy of education, to carry on the method by which he can be most eminently successful.

With such a method and with similar materials there are greater possibilities, too, of stimulating an unhampered teacher to creativeness, to improvement of the method on the materials in which he believes, or to invention of new means of success. "In the new and experimental situations which are inherent in creative teaching," writes Cox, "the supervisor needs tolerance of clumsy handling."<sup>2</sup>

The invention may not be highly important to the rest of the educational world, but it is paramount to the inventor. It increases not only his ambition but also his self-confidence. It makes him receptive of suggestions from a supervisor who is understanding and sympathetic. It stimulates him to a desire for growth as hardly anything else can. And who knows but that the new materials or the novel method may be of significance to others with similar needs and with similar aptitudes?

<sup>1</sup> On this type of supervision see E. O. Melby, "Can We Be Creative in Supervision?" *Educational Method*, 12:129-133, December, 1932; and F. C. Ayer, "Supervisory Procedures for Releasing the Creative Energies of Teachers," *Proceedings*, 683-684, of the National Education Association, 1932.

<sup>2</sup> Page 20 of *Supervision and the Creative Teacher*. Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Teaching, National Education Association, 1932. Much of the volume may profitably be read by principals of secondary schools.



Coöperation in creativeness by a group of teachers is evidence of the finest possible spirit that can exist in a faculty. The supervisor does not need to limit freedom while furnishing direction, advice, and suggestions for a program to prove by experimentation and measurement whatever is good.

**The Means of Supervision.**—It is highly important that supervision be conceived as a comprehensive program for the improvement of instruction. In the preparation of such a program it will be helpful to consider all of the possible means. The following list may not include all the means available, but it does present those of most importance.

#### A. Means of Facilitating Supervision

1. Providing good and enriched courses of study.
2. Developing in the teachers a community of responsibility and morale.
3. Making wise assignments of teachers to classes.
4. Protecting teachers from interruptions, overloads of outside activities, and criticism by the public.
5. Removing causes of disgruntlement.
6. Stimulating professional ambition.
7. Encouraging a critical attitude by teachers toward their own work.
8. Popularizing the school program and its accomplishments.
9. Providing necessary equipment and supplies.
10. Administering the school so that good teaching is possible.
11. Helping teachers to routinize the administration of their classes for economic efficiency.
12. Improving the behavior of pupils and removing disciplinary problems.

#### B. Preparation for Supervision

1. Selecting and retaining teachers promising of growth.
2. Learning the human background of each teacher, as well as his interests, activities, handicaps, temperament, and ambition.
3. Developing appropriate personal and social relations.
4. Discovering and encouraging peculiar strengths, and giving appropriate responsibilities, authority, and credit for accomplishment.
5. Giving recognition to meritorious work and judicious praise, public as well as private.
6. Giving evidence of appreciation, sympathy, and readiness to be of service.



7. Providing an adequate professional library of books and magazines.
  8. Learning the content and probable value of available courses in extension, correspondence, and summer schools.
  9. Accumulating pertinent information about the community and the pupils.
  10. Giving evidence of professional competence.
- C. Securing Information Useful for Supervision
1. Systematic observation of classes.
  2. Examining lesson plans.
  3. Talking with teachers, parents, and pupils.
  4. Studying exhibits of pupils' work.
  5. Measuring results and studying the data.
  6. Giving diagnostic tests and studying the data.
  7. Studying unusual successes and failures of pupils.
- D. Some Means of Supervision
1. Holding effective group meetings of teachers.
  2. Conferring constructively with teachers, individually or in small groups with common interests and needs.
  3. Being easily accessible to teachers who need help, encouragement, stimulus, and direction.
  4. Encouraging and directing the use of promising strengths.
  5. Diagnosing troubles and helping teachers overcome them.
  6. Providing teachers with pertinent information regarding the pupils.
  7. Assisting teachers to study the pupils—their abilities, their attitudes, and their ambitions—and to adapt the work according to the revealed individual differences.
  8. Sharing in coöperative work—e.g., improving courses of study, lesson planning, and the like.
  9. Coöperating in the examination, interpretation, criticism, and evaluation of textbooks and syllabi.
  10. Advising and assisting in the collection of enriched teaching materials.
  11. Helping teachers to understand the results of research and to apply them in their own work.
  12. Directing simple research and experimentation.
  13. Giving or providing demonstrations of good teaching.
  14. Directing visits to superior teachers and helping to interpret the reports of observation and to get the good used.
  15. Using stenographic reports or recorded recitation summaries for illustration of good procedures.
  16. Directing and using the results of professional readings.



17. Directing study in private or under competent instructors and aiding in the application of what is learned.
18. Improving the study habits of both teachers and pupils.
19. Using effective supervisory bulletins.
20. Encouraging self-rating by teachers.
21. Keeping supervision above the level of inspection and rating.
22. Using intensive "drives" for specified objectives.
23. Encouraging cultural enrichment.
24. Setting an example of professional efficiency.

As a part of the National Survey of Secondary Education Billett collected from the literature on the subject a list of 72 "activities which competent writers have classified at one time or another as supervisory." A number of the activities listed are not by our proposed definition supervisory in character. Some are preparatory to supervision, some are to facilitate effective work by teachers, some are concerned with the machinery of supervision, and some are purely administrative. However, it may prove helpful for a principal planning a supervisory program to consider the ranking that Billett secured from 248 principals, heads of departments, and special supervisors in 130 schools selected because of the reported excellence of their programs. Following the items ranked below are two figures indicating respectively the percentages (A) of all supervisory officers and (B) of principals alone who reported that they use each activity.<sup>1</sup>

TABLE I

SEVENTY-TWO SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES RANKED IN THE ORDER OF RELATIVE IMPORTANCE BY 248 SUPERVISORY OFFICERS (BILLETT)

	A	B
1. Visit classroom teachers.....	88	76
2. Read educational literature.....	86	84
3. Attend professional meetings outside the school system.....	85	81
4. Plan, conduct, and follow up the results of individual conferences.....	85	78
5. Hold membership or office in professional organizations.....	83	71
6. Attend, plan, conduct, and follow up the results of departmental meetings.....	82	65

<sup>1</sup> Adapted from *Administration and Supervision*, Monograph No. 11 of the National Survey of Secondary Education, pp. 155-159. *Bulletin No. 17*, 1932, United States Printing Office.



TABLE I—*Continued*

SEVENTY-TWO SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES RANKED IN THE ORDER OF RELATIVE IMPORTANCE BY 248 SUPERVISORY OFFICERS (BILLETT)—*Continued*

	A	B
7. Attend, plan, conduct, and follow up the results of group conferences or committee meetings.....	81	74
8. Requisition materials needed for classroom work.....	78	53
9. Consult with parents concerning pupils.....	76	81
10. Study the interests, abilities, talents, experience, and training of the staff supervised.....	75	62
11. Attend meetings of community groups or organizations.....	71	68
12. Study the interests, abilities, talents, and experiential background of the pupils.....	70	70
13. Analyze and follow up suggestions made by teachers for the improvement of the educational program of the school.....	68	67
14. Help teachers to utilize newly introduced materials and equipment.....	67	52
15. Maintain a system encouraging teachers to offer suggestions for the improvement of the educational program of the school.....	67	62
16. Encourage teachers to attend professional meetings outside their own school system.....	66	58
17. Attend, plan, conduct, and follow up the results of general faculty meetings.....	65	70
18. Plan or advise concerning the teacher's daily schedule.....	65	57
19. Improve the teacher's classroom management, including distribution and collection of materials and filing of materials for later use.....	64	60
20. Analyze and appraise own supervisory activities and traits...	64	60
21. Plan, direct, or advise concerning exhibits of school work...	63	49
22. Advise concerning classification or reclassification of pupils...	63	81
23. Direct or coöperate with teachers in the solution of research or service problems.....	62	67
24. Encourage teachers to attend teachers' institutes or conventions.....	62	53
25. Hold membership or office in community groups or organizations.....	61	60
26. Encourage teachers to attend summer school or carry extension or correspondence courses.....	61	59
27. Develop and maintain or help to develop and maintain cumulative records of pupils.....	60	71
28. Recommend or make changes in location of classrooms for various subjects.....	60	65
29. Serve on professional committees outside the school system ..	59	62
30. Encourage teachers to hold membership or office in professional organizations outside their own school system.....	59	57
31. Advise as to what subjects and how many subjects pupils should carry.....	58	70
32. Rate teachers.....	57	63
33. Edit or contribute to supervisory bulletins and circulars.....	57	63
34. Attend summer school or take extension or correspondence courses.....	57	55



TABLE I—*Continued*

SEVENTY-TWO SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES RANKED IN THE ORDER OF RELATIVE IMPORTANCE BY 248 SUPERVISORY OFFICERS (BILLETT)—*Continued*

	A	B
35. Visit other school systems and study educational practices. . .	56	67
36. Plan, conduct, or follow up the results of testing programs. . . .	56	57
37. Help teachers to get along with little equipment. . . . .	56	31
38. Encourage teachers to attend meetings of community groups and organizations. . . . .	55	57
39. Maintain scheduled office hours for teachers who of their own initiative are seeking help. . . . .	54	52
40. Make case studies of problem pupils or have such studies made	52	73
41. Direct, guide, or advise concerning the library service of the school. . . . .	52	36
42. Improve the teachers' efficiency in handling the routine matters of reports and records. . . . .	52	57
43. Address community groups or organizations. . . . .	52	65
44. Direct or guide teachers in the selection of summer school, extension, or correspondence courses. . . . .	52	55
45. Secure or help to secure stenographic and other clerical aid for teachers. . . . .	45	57
46. Help to fill vacancies in teaching positions. . . . .	45	52
47. Survey the school plant and equipment. . . . .	44	52
48. Encourage teachers to serve on professional committees outside their own school system. . . . .	44	46
49. Address professional groups outside the school system. . . . .	44	49
50. Plan or follow up the intervisitation of teachers. . . . .	43	36
51. Prepare news articles. . . . .	39	38
52. Arrange conferences between teachers and parents. . . . .	39	68
53. Encourage teachers to hold membership or office in community groups or organizations. . . . .	39	43
54. Transfer or recommend the transfer of a teacher from one position to another. . . . .	37	48
55. Encourage teachers to write professional articles for publication	37	43
56. Recommend or make changes in the daily program of the school	37	62
57. Encourage teachers to address professional groups outside their own school system. . . . .	37	37
58. Write professional articles for publication. . . . .	37	38
59. Develop and maintain or help to develop and maintain cumulative records of teachers. . . . .	34	33
60. Encourage teachers to address community groups or organizations. . . . .	34	41
61. Plan, conduct, or follow up the results of demonstration teaching. . . . .	30	25
62. Teach summer school, extension, or correspondence courses. . .	30	27
63. Coöperate with normal schools, colleges, or universities to improve the quality, or increase the number of summer school, extension, or correspondence courses available to teachers .	29	28
64. Direct or guide teachers' professional training. . . . .	28	28
65. Provide means whereby teachers may rate systematically their own traits and activities. . . . .	27	22



TABLE I—*Continued*SEVENTY-TWO SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES RANKED IN THE ORDER OF RELATIVE IMPORTANCE BY 248 SUPERVISORY OFFICERS (BILLETT)—*Continued*

	A	B
66. Survey the community served by the school. . . . .	26	37
67. Recommend teachers for bonus or salary increase. . . . .	23	31
68. Recommend or arrange for temporary exchange of positions by teachers. . . . .	19	20
69. Direct and coördinate the work of all supervisors in the school	18	43
70. Recommend teachers for leaves of absence with pay or part pay for travel. . . . .	6	11
71. Provide means whereby teachers may rate systematically the supervisor's traits and activities. . . . .	6	2
72. Recommend teachers for leaves of absence with pay or part pay for further training. . . . .	4	5

Another ranking of supervisory activities was reported by a study, which has not been published, made by the superintendents of Hampden County, Massachusetts. Following is the average ranking of twenty means by three groups: 201 teachers "selected on the bases of efficiency, broad training, and good judgment," 39 supervisory officers, and 63 professors in normal schools and colleges of education who are specialists in the work. "More time and effort are spent on some methods than on others," says the mimeographed report. "Those rating the scale were, therefore, requested to give those methods the highest ratings which, in terms of the typical teacher and under superior conditions, bring about the greatest improvement in teaching in proportion to the time and effort expended on them by the teacher." Following each item are the average rankings by (A) the teachers, (B) the supervisory officers, and (C) the professors. Some of the differences are interesting and significant.

There will doubtless be strong dissent by every reader to the rank accorded some items, especially if his experience or his vision of possibilities is different from those of the raters. But, as the report says in its introduction, "Opinions on professional problems are always in a state of flux and even though constant may be wrong. Furthermore, changes in practice frequently demand changes in opinion. . . . It was believed that a collective opinion would be superior to the opinion of any individual."

Those who are interested to consider other lists of supervisory



TABLE II

SUPERVISORY METHODS RANKED IN ORDER OF RELATIVE IMPORTANCE  
FOR JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

	A	B	C
1. Summer school attendance.....	2	2	2
2½. Personal conferences with supervisory officers.....	3	1	3
2½. Travel in a foreign country by teacher of language or history of that country.....	1	5	1
4. Teachers meeting—group, department, or grade (non- administrative).....	4	3	7
5½. Demonstration lessons—teacher observing demonstra- tion.....	6	8	6
5½. Extension courses.....	5	4	11
7. Demonstration lesson—teacher preparing and giving demonstration.....	10	7	4
8. Revision of curriculum and courses of study.....	14	6	5
9. Visiting other schools and teachers.....	7	11	10
10. Educational tests and measurements.....	11	10	8
11. Private study.....	9	9	11½
12. Foreign travel for general cultural value.....	8	13½	9
13. Increased salaries for superior teachers.....	13	13½	9
14. Travel in this country.....	12	15	12
15. Teacher rating.....	15	12	15
16½. Supervisory bulletins.....	16	16½	17
16½. Teachers meetings—building (non-administrative)...	17	16½	16
18. Teachers conventions and institutes.....	18	18	20
19. Correspondence courses.....	19	19	19
20. Teachers meetings—general (non-administrative) ...	20	20	18

activities and indications of their importance and frequency of use are referred to the following tables in the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence:

Table 4, page 27, Supervisory duties performed by more than one-half of 140 superintendents reporting.

Table 5, page 28, Supervisory duties performed by fewer than one-half and more than one-third of 140 superintendents reporting.

Table 7, pages 29–30, Supervisory duties of major and average importance performed by over 50 per cent of 658 elementary school principals.

Table 8, page 30, Supervisory duties undesirable for elementary school principals to perform.

Table 9, pages 31–32, Supervisory duties of primary and average importance performed by over 50 per cent of superin-



tendents, high school principals, or elementary school principals [respectively].

Table 10, page 33, Supervisory duties of primary importance performed by less than 50 per cent of public school administrators.

Table 25, page 81, Percentage of supervisors, specialists, superintendents, and teachers [respectively] rating certain supervisory devices as "very valuable" and recommending that they be "used often or emphasized."

In spite of such reports indicating approval of numerous means for supervision, there is much evidence that they are not used nearly to the extent that they should be. Hughes and Melby <sup>1</sup> after an extensive study state that "for some reason supervision has never been given the place of prominence in the high school that it has enjoyed in the elementary school. In fact it appears that the higher the educational level the less the dependence that has been placed on supervision. Viewed from whatever angle, there has been a reluctance on the part of both theorists and school administrators to carry out any far-reaching supervisory programs on the high-school level."

And Billett in the National Survey report previously quoted gives on page 162 a discouragingly small list of the supervisory "activities which 50 per cent or more of all supervisors have regarded as having contributed with a fair or high degree of success to each of the major divisions of the supervisory program." "If one sets the standard still higher," he continues, "and seeks those activities which 76 per cent or more of the supervisors performing them have estimated as having contributed with a fair or higher degree of success to the attainment of the major divisions of the supervisory program, the story is one soon told. Absolutely none of the activities meets this criterion with respect to aims or objectives, provisions for individual differences of teachers, adjustment of the teacher to the community, or evaluation of the supervisory program. Only four attain this standard with respect to subject matter or content and only five with respect to teaching methods and procedures. Two activities are common to both lists. They are 'the reading of educational literature' and the 'attending, planning,

<sup>1</sup> *Supervision of Instruction in High School*, p. 108. Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Illinois, 1930.



conducting, or following up the results of departmental meetings.' The remaining two, with respect to the development of subject matter or content, are 'attending, planning, conducting, or following up the results of group conferences or committee meetings' and 'planning, conducting, or following up the results of testing programs.' . . . The remaining three activities with respect to the development of teaching methods and procedures are 'visiting classroom teachers,' 'visiting other school systems and studying educational practice,' and 'planning, conducting, or following up the results of individual conferences.' " The general practice is doubtless much worse than these data indicate, for Billett had returns from only 69, probably the better ones, of the 130 schools recommended as having unusually successful programs of supervision. To the question "Do you believe that a successful supervisory program is functioning in your school?" nine answered "No" and five expressed doubt. The median percentage of the principals' time devoted to supervision is reported by Engelhardt and Teigel as 15.2. The National Education Association Research Bulletin *The Principal as a Supervisor* recommends that a non-teaching principal should devote one-half of his time to supervision.

In "An Analysis of the Job of the Elementary Principal" <sup>1</sup> Buckingham reports the five activities of principals that consumed most of their time and the five that were most important. It was found that in a number of instances there was "a perfect negative or inverse correlation between the activities in the order of the time required to perform them and the activities in the order of their importance. . . . One superintendent, after listing the five time-consuming activities, wrote under the heading of the five most important activities, 'Reverse the above list.' . . . Many principals are the victims of the systems in which they work. They see nothing further than the next duty. A petty round of affairs consumes their entire energies. They have lost their sense of values. They have failed to distinguish between duties for which they are responsible and duties which they must personally perform. . . . Such a principal has virtually abdicated his leadership for the sake of fussing over the detail and routine of running a building."

<sup>1</sup> *Educational Research Bulletin*, Ohio State University, October 17, 1923.



## EXERCISES

1. Select from the list of activities quoted on pages 25–27 those that you think are truly supervisory. Rank the others in the order in which in your judgment they may contribute when well used to the effectiveness of supervision.

2. How do you explain that the principals report a superior amount of use of only a relatively few items in the list on pages 25–27? Note the items that principals use more than the average of all supervisors.

3. Give your own rating of the 20 items listed in the Hampden County study, page 31, and justify significant differences in your ranking.

4. Compare the rank reported in the two studies, pages 27–30 and 31 (Billett's and Hampden), to the items common to both of them. What can you learn from the agreements and the divergencies?

5. Which of the means do you think you are now most competent to use effectively? About which do you think you need to learn more?

6. Are the means of supervision adequate to achieve all of the purposes presented in the preceding chapter? What additional means do you think you should use?



## CHAPTER III

---

### TEACHERS AND SUPERVISION

---

**All Teachers Should Be Supervised.**—The unfortunate and incomplete conception of supervision as merely an aid to poor teachers in times of special need has greatly limited its use and its effectiveness. When the primary purpose of supervision is conceived as a stimulus to growth, it will be recognized as important for all teachers and unending in its possibilities. As Commissioner Kendall once wrote, "A teacher must increase her own personal worth, enlarge her interest and general scholarship, widen her vision, broaden her culture, and acquire better individual resources." Without growth there is stagnation and eventually inevitable retrogression. There is no such thing in a profession as reaching a standard and staying there. No "standard" is satisfactory; the better the teacher, the greater his possible growth. "The supervisor in education must articulate forces for human welfare, assisting the teacher in realizing full value in every iota of her training, insight, knowledge, skill, and personality, and through such realization not only improve her service but increase her professional strength for even better service. The teacher who is effectively supervised continues her professional education."<sup>1</sup>

Even if all teachers had reached a "standard" of performance, it could not remain satisfactory when changing conditions bring new responsibilities and new challenges. During the past half-generation the conception of education has broadened tremendously. No longer is it sufficient to drill youth in a corpus of traditional subject-matter; education today is generally recognized in theory as concerned with the whole of every individual—the physical, aesthetic, social, moral, and ethical as well as the intellectual. And the idea of what is desirable in each of these fields is also changing. We have learned a new

<sup>1</sup> Clyde B. Moore, "Trends and Purposes of Professional Supervision," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 12:379-392, September, 1926.



psychology, which has been as yet only in part translated into practice. And the pupils now crowding our secondary schools are a fair sample of the entire population, no longer highly selected on the basis of superior intellects or of fortunate social and economic status, but with startling ranges of abilities, interests, aptitudes, and needs. In the face of such facts, what "standard" could remain satisfactory?

Another factor that makes supervision a necessity is the individualism of teachers and their satisfaction in working alone with emphasis chiefly on the subject to which they have been assigned. It must be recognized that no school can be effective unless the teachers work as members of a team, each contributing what is possible from his field to clearly seen general objectives for the attainment of which all are responsible. Youth cannot be effectively educated in segments, and youth has small ability to synthesize what is learned into a philosophy of life and a program of action. It is only by means of supervision, carefully planned, skillful, and continuous that teachers can be welded into a unified group and directed in coöperative work for a commonly perceived and approved end.

**Variations in Teachers Training.**—Supervision, whether conceived as corrective or as stimulating to growth, is necessary because of the variation in the training and experience of teachers. Numerous studies <sup>1</sup> have reported that the training, both general and professional, of a distressingly large number of teachers is entirely inadequate for the success of the schools in which they are employed. There is no need of considering averages, for the critical concern of any principal is with the individual teachers in the school for whose leadership he has the responsibility. Whatever the training of the teachers, efficiency can be improved by supervision, which should be a never-ending venture in adult education. One teacher will have rich academic training, on which he will rely too heavily, and may be lacking in a knowledge of how to organize his materials and how to present them with the promise of effective learning. Another will know far too little of what he is expected to teach but will possess numerous technical skills, which cannot produce results because of his lack of the raw materials with which

<sup>1</sup> See the summary in F. P. Bachman's own study, *The Training and Certification of High-School Teachers*, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1930.



to work. Between these extremes there are variations of all kinds that challenge a supervisor to stimulate growth where it is most needed or most promising of fruitful results. The challenge becomes greater and more pressing when teachers are of necessity assigned, as frequently is the case, to fields in which they have entirely inadequate preparation of any kind.

**Experience.**—The variation in experience is equally great. Many schools employ as teachers young men and women who have had no practical experience of any kind. This is not altogether bad, for supervision can often be most effective before poor habits are formed and when the young teacher realizing his needs is genuinely receptive to help. Although the practice of “teaching until something else turns up” is being gradually replaced by an expectancy of persistence in the profession, thus reducing the proportion of new teachers in schools, those who are beginning need continuous and expert help to adjust them to the new environment and to enable them to start well in the chosen way. Supervision is also especially needed by teachers new to a school, whatever their previous experience. It may have been good or it may have been harmful. In the former case the principal must be careful not to impose his own ideas of procedures, which may be less effective with the teacher than the accustomed ones, and he may have to use a more delicate tact to make his assistance desired. When former experience has been bad, often because of poor supervision, the supervisor’s task is more than usually difficult; he has to get rid of bad practices and sometimes bad attitudes while carrying on his constructive program. The data <sup>1</sup> on the tenure of teachers in schools approved by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools emphasizes the challenge presented to supervision by teachers who are new in a system. 10.7 per cent of the teachers in the Midwest are in their positions for the first year; and 17.2 per cent have not completed their second year. Other studies have reported the average turnover of teachers elsewhere as much larger.

**Practice.**—Supervision is also demanded by the general practice of teachers, whatever their experience. There is in many schools evidence of teaching remarkable for its consistent seeking for the broadest and highest ideals of education, for the

<sup>1</sup> *North Central Association Quarterly*, 10:412–421, April, 1936.



ingenuity in devising or adapting methods, for the skill in using them, and for the personal influence on pupils. But, as any observer of many schools knows, the prevailing type of "teaching" is hearing lessons from assignments in textbooks. A study<sup>1</sup> of teachers who were reported as "best" in large urban schools found that the great majority were pursuing the conventional method of assigning text material, explaining it, and questioning on it. Someone has characterized the typical teaching in our high schools as "aimless, superficial, and insignificant." This is certainly too harsh a criticism, but with equal certainty it is deserved by much teaching on which the public depends for the improved effectiveness of its boys and girls. As emphasized in this book, exceptionally good teachers are the most important challenge to the best supervisors, manifesting the largest growth under recognition, encouragement, suggestion, and coöperation. But the large majority of teachers, ranging from those who do excellent mechanical work all the way down to the absolute failures, are also challenges to supervisors.

It is much easier to find details of practice in which teachers are judged to fail than to find those in which they manifest unusual success. The supervisor should not only look for, but should also attempt to analyze, successes so that he finds the significant causes and can begin to plan for even better work. The most important judgments will be made in terms of ideals based on principles of society and of education, but judgments in terms of comparison with the practice of other teachers tend to keep the supervisor's work immediately practical. Anderson, Barr, and Bush have classified into seventeen types elementary school teachers who are failing—those who lack control over the technique of teaching, those who lack adaptability, those who lack standards, and the like—and have given valuable suggestions likely to be of immediate help.<sup>2</sup> These types are also found in secondary schools. The supervisor must not forget, however, that the most important basis for teachers' continued growth is the understanding of basic educational principles that enables them to share in the creation of an ideal toward which

<sup>1</sup> Thomas H. Briggs, "The Practices of Best High-School Teachers," *School Review*, 43:745-752, December, 1935.

<sup>2</sup> *Visiting the Teacher at Work*, pp. 331-348. D. Appleton and Co., 1925.



they may steadily work. But every experienced person knows that it is exceedingly difficult to translate theory into practice; the supervisor needs, therefore, to strive continuously to help teachers devise means for doing what they know ought to be done. Effectiveness is not likely to develop without this constant help.

**New Teachers.**—As previously noted, new teachers need help in orientating themselves and in adjusting to the new situation. The principal will as rapidly as feasible attempt to ascertain the respects in which they are peculiarly good or promising, and he will also look for weaknesses so as to help remove the causes before permanent harm is done. Johnson and Umstattd have reported <sup>1</sup> the composite opinions of 119 superintendents as to the ranks by frequencies of items causing difficulties to beginners. Although every young teacher will have his own peculiar difficulties, the following quotation from the report may prove helpful to a supervisor planning a helpful and constructive program:

TABLE III

PHASES OF INSTRUCTIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES CAUSING DIFFICULTY TO BEGINNING TEACHERS AND RANK OF EACH ITEM ACCORDING TO FREQUENCY WITH WHICH REPORTED BY 119 SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS IN MINNESOTA

ITEM CAUSING DIFFICULTY	RANK
Of most frequent occurrence:	
Remedial instruction.....	1
Use of test results.....	2.5
Diagnostic testing.....	2.5
Adaptation of subject-matter to needs of the individual.....	5
Training in habits of study.....	5
Supervised or directed study.....	5
Discipline.....	7
Classroom management.....	8
Questioning.....	9
Motivation procedures.....	10
Assignment.....	11.5
Stimulating and utilizing student participation.....	11.5
Of intermediate occurrence:	
Planning instruction.....	14.5
Use of supplementary materials.....	14.5

<sup>1</sup> "Classroom Difficulties of Beginning Teachers," *School Review*, 40:682-686, November, 1932.



TABLE III—*Continued*

PHASES OF INSTRUCTIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES CAUSING DIFFICULTY TO BEGINNING TEACHERS AND RANK OF EACH ITEM ACCORDING TO FREQUENCY WITH WHICH REPORTED BY 119 SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS IN MINNESOTA—*Continued*

ITEM CAUSING DIFFICULTY	RANK
Socialized recitation . . . . .	14.5
Objective test as a learning device . . . . .	14.5
Adaptation of subject-matter to ability of class . . . . .	20
Drill . . . . .	20
Testing . . . . .	20
Problem method . . . . .	20
Project method . . . . .	20
Individualized instruction (contract plan) . . . . .	20
Individualized instruction (other plans) . . . . .	20
Inadequate knowledge of pupil interests . . . . .	25.5
Inadequate knowledge of pupil environment . . . . .	25.5
Marking . . . . .	25.5
Training in use of library . . . . .	25.5
Inadequate knowledge of pupil's previous experiences . . . . .	28.5
Visual instruction . . . . .	28.5
Inadequate knowledge of pupil's mental ability . . . . .	32
Inadequate knowledge of pupil's personal traits . . . . .	32
Demonstration . . . . .	32
Review . . . . .	32
Project (individual) . . . . .	32
Deficient general scholarship . . . . .	37
Adaptation of subject-matter to needs of community . . . . .	37
Of least frequent occurrence:	
Use of textbook . . . . .	37
Formal recitation . . . . .	37
Deficiency in personality traits . . . . .	37
Laboratory . . . . .	40
Inadequate knowledge of pupil's previous record . . . . .	41.5
Lack of interest in further professional study . . . . .	41.5
Field trips . . . . .	44
Use of radio in instruction . . . . .	44
Lack of interest in teaching . . . . .	44
Deficient scholarship in field of specialization . . . . .	46
Inadequate knowledge of pupil's physical condition . . . . .	47
Poor health . . . . .	48

**Supervision for Continuous Growth.**—Supervision is needed by all teachers, the ambitious as well as the complacent, as a stimulus to professional growth, which should be continuous rather than sporadic. Tenure laws protect the poor and the lazy teachers as well as the good, and it is known to be difficult,



especially in large schools, to prove sufficient professional incompetence to warrant dismissal. There are far too many teachers who will make few and infrequent attempts to develop professionally unless they receive repeated stimulus from without, which has the purpose of setting up a stimulus from within. There are others who entered upon teaching before the present requirements were in effect, and others still who met the requirements without having real teaching competence. For these the principal should be a continuous training school. Supervision is needed, too, for the purpose of holding teachers to their best and of jarring them out of ruts of mediocrity or worse. One of the particularly bad ruts is manifested in the attitude that a teacher's responsibility is merely to assign lessons from the selected text and to mark pupils on the mastery of factual material.

**Failure of Pupils.**—The need of supervision is evidenced by the failure of pupils not merely to master assigned facts and principles, but also to retain them, to organize them with what has previously been learned, and habitually to apply them to life situations. The evidence of lack of mastery has been too frequently published to be repeated here. The results are much worse than are indicated by distributions of marks assigned after the use of school examinations or of standardized tests, though the percentage of low marks in every school is discouragingly high. Failure by a pupil is failure by the school, whether caused by improper classification, poor teaching, or failure to stimulate a pupil or call forth his best effort. Even though failure be considered wholly the responsibility of the pupil, there is little or no profit to society from the investment it has made, and for this the school is ultimately responsible. Less than mastery differs from failure only in degree. But the challenge to supervision is even greater than that evidenced by records of immediate learning. Too small an amount of what is mastered is retained. No person is judged efficient in this world by what he has once known and since forgotten. No more foolish statement was ever made than that "education consists of what remains when one has forgotten all that he has learned," a statement based on a mediaeval misconception of practical psychology. Supervision is needed to help teachers help youth to master significant learning, to retain it, to organize it, and to



form the habit of repeatedly calling on acquired knowledge and skills to meet the enlarged needs of the educated person.

The need of supervision is evidenced by the failure of pupils to succeed not only in life, but in the further preparation for life in colleges. Admitting a large degree of reliability, one must recognize that the high percentage of failures and the elimination from colleges in the freshman year have considerable significance. That even college preparation, which is a real, though not the chief, function of secondary schools, is not satisfactorily done is proved not merely by the failures in attempts to enter higher institutions and in the subsequent courses there taken, but also, and perhaps more significantly, by the fact that only a relatively small per cent of admitted students continue without compulsion the studies in which they were prepared. The small number of students in advanced elective college courses in Latin, mathematics, and other traditionally "basic" studies manifests that their value to the pupils has not been proved. For this situation the colleges of course must take a share of the blame, but supervision in the secondary school has a responsibility to lead teachers to make pupils appreciative of the value of what they learn and its opportunities for later use. Failure in this is due not so much to the fact that the courses offered are not good for some individuals as that they are not the best for all who are required, encouraged, or permitted to take them. Supervision has a responsibility for providing that education be adapted not merely in method, but also in content to the widely divergent individual differences in ability, aptitudes, interests, and probable needs.

**Supervision in Unfamiliar Fields.**—The question very naturally arises whether a principal can offer effective supervision to teachers of subjects with which he has little or no familiarity. The answer depends, of course, on what is meant by supervision. If it is inadequately conceived as telling a teacher exactly what content should be presented and what detailed methods should be used, the answer is an inevitable negative. That is not the proper concept of supervision. By reviewing the definition of supervision previously given and by considering the purposes that have been proposed, one can readily see that a principal with no knowledge whatever of a subject can render many services to its teacher. Moreover, there are



general principles of method common to all subjects, and from a teacher can be obtained information regarding purposes sought and materials used that will enable any skilled supervisor to make intelligent suggestions. If a teacher of French is intending among other things to teach pupils to pronounce the language correctly, it requires no unusual knowledge of the subject to reveal that failure is inevitable when the class is silent four-fifths of the recitation period. There are abundant opportunities for supervisory service by a principal who has no knowledge whatever of the subject taught. As a matter of fact, a principal should seldom presume on his own training and experience in a subject field to give detailed suggestions; his responsibilities are far larger than that and his opportunities for effective service can best be found in seeking more comprehensive purposes.

**The Attitude of Teachers toward Supervision.**—The attitude of teachers toward supervision will depend on their experiences with it and on their professional ambition and alertness; these in turn develop from a vision of the possibilities in education. Several studies have reported what teachers' attitudes actually are and what they want supervisors to do. Hayes quotes <sup>1</sup> deprecatory attitudes from two articles in other journals and a statement by a committee of the American Federation of Labor, which was "alarmed by the lack of democracy in the conduct of our schools," the "teachers actually on the job in the classrooms having a negligible voice in the determination and carrying out of policies." And Saunders describes <sup>2</sup> the attitude of teachers, whom she divides into three classes, "the bold, wanting non-interference," "the timid, wanting minute directions," and "the courageous, wanting democratic supervision." From representatives of the first class she quotes: "Do I, a highly trained specialist in my subject, want supervision from a principal? I should say not. Most of them are too ignorant of what I am trying to do to offer worthwhile advice;" and "I spent five years getting ready to teach my subject. Do you suppose I want a principal who knows less than I do about my subject coming in and interfering with

<sup>1</sup> Fannie B. Hayes, "Supervision from the Point of View of the Teacher," *School Review*, 33:220-226, March, 1925.

<sup>2</sup> M. Olga Saunders, "What the Teachers Want from the Principal in His Capacity as a Supervisor," *School Review*, 33:610-615, October, 1925.



my business? ” Their erroneous conceptions of supervision are obvious.

Saunders goes on to say that the courageous teachers, who have a better but still an inadequate conception of supervision, want from the principal:

- 1. Accurate information regarding every classroom procedure that has been scientifically tried out and scientifically developed into a definite technique;
- 2. Definite information as to where these techniques are practiced;
- 3. An opportunity to visit teachers who use these techniques;
- 4. After mastery of a theory, the opportunity to practice it intelligently under direction;
- 5. Reliable information as to what science has determined to be the correct quality and quantity of subjects for students of low intelligence;
- 6. New and carefully evaluated courses of study; and
- 7. Evaluated teaching materials.

In a more comprehensive study, based on returns from more than three-fourths of 963 teachers of eight departments in 33 high schools, Reavis reports <sup>1</sup> that the following percentages want the items listed in Table IV:

TABLE IV  
PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS DESIRING FROM SUPERVISION  
THE FOLLOWING AID (REAVIS)

ITEM	PER CENT
1. Opportunity to observe the work of superior teachers.....	22
2. Assistance in diagnosis of deficiencies of teaching and suggested remedies.....	19
3. Frequent personal conferences.....	14
4. Factual data regarding scientific experiments.....	10
5. Commendation for better than average work.....	10
6. Frequent demonstration of good teaching.....	8
7. Assistance in management of problem pupils.....	6
8. Aid in constructing tests.....	6
9. Aid in preparing lesson plans.....	4
10. Tested formulae for meeting every kind of difficulty.....	3

<sup>1</sup> W. C. Reavis, "How to Improve Supervision in Secondary Schools," *Bulletin* 40, March, 1932. Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, pp. 305-315.



It should be noted that all of the items are mentioned by relatively a small fraction of the teachers. Two-thirds stated that they thought the supervision which they had was helpful; 23 per cent thought it not helpful; and 11 per cent made no reply to the question. Following is a list of the activities that the teachers thought helpful and not helpful.

TABLE V

ACTIVITIES OF THE PRINCIPAL CONSIDERED BY VARIOUS PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS HELPFUL AND NOT HELPFUL (REAVIS)

HELPFUL	
Item	Per Cent
1. Merely confirming teachers' ideas of merit . . . . .	31
2. Aiding teachers in acquiring better practices . . . . .	23
3. Rendering general assistance . . . . .	14
4. Aiding in diagnosing difficulties . . . . .	12
5. Aiding in preparing remedies for poor learning practices . . . . .	8
6. Aiding in classroom control . . . . .	5
7. Disapproving of practices formerly considered satisfactory . . . . .	4
8. Demonstrating good classroom practices . . . . .	2
NOT HELPFUL	
1. Failing to reveal appreciation or interest in efforts of teachers to make professional improvement . . . . .	27
2. Offering suggestions regarded as invalid . . . . .	23
3. Condemning practices considered good . . . . .	17
4. Approving practices considered poor . . . . .	15
5. Interrupting too frequently . . . . .	11
6. Criticizing with no constructive suggestions . . . . .	7

The Third Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, *Current Problems of Supervision*,<sup>1</sup> contains much information of a similar nature; 1682 questions, inquiries, and requests for help from teachers to 154 supervisors are classified in part in Table VI. "Supervisors reported that teachers expressed very little interest in . . . interpretation of aims and objectives, the interpretation of course of study outlines, books, etc., the improvement of their own limitations, both personal and professional, curriculum revision, or constructive teachers' meetings . . ." Teachers are neither interested in nor "concerned with the basic principles underlying the work of the school. Their requests are for help in meeting the

<sup>1</sup> Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1930.



TABLE VI

THE MORE SIGNIFICANT REQUESTS BY TEACHERS FOR HELP

1. Concerning desirable methods.....	318
2. For advice concerning individual needs and difficulties of pupils...	271
3. For provision of materials of instruction, supplies, etc.....	136
4. For help in selecting materials of instruction.....	83
5. For diagnosis of teaching difficulties.....	68
TOTAL.....	876

practical and too often the routine issues.”<sup>1</sup> Later the Yearbook reports that fewer than one-half of one per cent of the teachers who reported for the study professed an interest in the aims and objectives of the courses that they taught. These data are cogent evidence of the need of constructive supervision that leads to an understanding and an appreciation of the meaning of education.

Subsequent chapters of the Yearbook, which should be read by all who are interested, report what the teachers want assistance on (Chapter III), what they consider the best help received from supervision (Chapter V), and their evaluation of types and sources of supervisory aid (Chapter IX). Although these data are from elementary school teachers, it is likely that those in secondary schools would report similarly.<sup>2</sup>

Other expressions of teachers’ attitudes toward supervision are found in the following quotations.

“ There is not much supervision in our school, and what there is, is not particularly annoying.”<sup>3</sup>

“ One undoubtedly leads a calmer life in the senior high school quite undisturbed by impetuous principals who expect one to have reasons for what and how one carries on. . . . I am not unmindful that the pacifist program of high-school supervision may be attributed to a wary reluctance on the part of the principal to enter into controversy with a teacher who may know more about the subject-matter than he does.”<sup>4</sup>

“ I prefer intelligent supervision to being let alone.”<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *Op. cit.*, pp. 11-12.

<sup>2</sup> See also Ralph W. Tyler, “Unsuccessful Efforts in Supervision,” *Educational Research Bulletin*, pp. 330-338, Ohio State University, September 10, 1930.

<sup>3</sup> Quoted by William A. Wetzel, *Biography of a High School*, p. 132, American Book Co., New York, 1937.

<sup>4</sup> Quoted by Thomas H. Briggs, “Supervision in Secondary Education,” *Clearing House*, 10:81 and 83, October, 1935.



A part of a study by Barr and Reppen<sup>1</sup> is summarized as follows:

The teachers registered a considerable number of complaints against the procedures of supervisors. They charged them with inadequate planning, needlessly distracting the class; promoting fads and set techniques; and engaging in needless and purposeless changes in policies. Teachers complain that supervisors criticize petty and unimportant details and upset them emotionally over trifles when the general character of the work was admittedly satisfactory. They use "snap judgment" based on inadequate observation. Besides, the supervisor's personality was often the cause of friction.

Teachers wanted more help with the problems of teaching, discipline, and provisions for individual differences. Weak teachers wanted help, got little, and became more critical than strong teachers. The weak teachers' criticisms and wants were, as a rule, poorly stated, vague, and poorly defined. Senior high school teachers furnish more than their share of the unsolved problems. . . .

While teachers found much to criticize in the practice of supervision, they cited two and one-half times as many instances of helpful supervision as they did of objectionable supervision. Seventy-five per cent of the instances in which teachers sought and secured helpful supervision fall into these five categories: problems of teaching, discipline, curriculum, routine administration, and individual differences.

Teachers favored classroom visiting, demonstrations, conferences, visiting other teachers, teachers' meetings, and professional reading. While the differences were not great, they found the experimental study of the problems of teaching, participation in curriculum construction, and supervisory bulletins the least helpful. . . .

While principals were found to be neither particularly helpful nor harmful, they were rated first [among all supervisory officers] in general helpfulness. . . . Heads of departments and assistant superintendents were given indifferent ratings.

From Maryland, where supervision from the State Department of Education has been particularly effective under Superintendent A. S. Cook, come<sup>2</sup> a series of letters which indicate that the attitudes of teachers are highly favorable when they get what they want.

<sup>1</sup> "The Attitude of Teachers toward Supervision," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 3:237-301, June, 1935.

<sup>2</sup> *Maryland School Bulletin*, 1924, pp. 13-18.



Theoretically, teachers who are normally trained, or who regularly attend summer schools, have received the wherewithal to make them efficient teachers; so have salespeople after years of experience, but we all know that good managers earn their salaries many times over. Both managers and supervisors are specialists in methods. In my own school there is to be found a splendid young woman with a teaching experience of six or eight years who, on her own admission, has received through supervision of a year and a half an impetus that has made her doubly efficient to what she was in former years. Similar cases could be found all over our country and state.

I could never apply the principles [in good books] unless I received definite suggestions from the supervisor.

Surprising insight into the problems of each classroom is shown.

Every organization needs a leader. The supervisor is a leader. . . . We find ourselves accomplishing the most difficult things because the supervisor leads us. No teacher can shirk her duty when she has an enthusiastic supervisor for her leader.

To discontinue supervision would . . . mean a loss to the taxpayers of our county in the less efficient work of the inexperienced teachers, the careless work of the indifferent ones, and in the loss of inspiration to the hard-working conscientious group. Only through supervision can we hope to forge ahead and continue the progress we have made under the present system.

I have taught school for 35 years, and 26 of them have been in my immediate neighborhood. My aim and desire have been to compensate the child for spending the day with me in school, but I measured myself by myself, which is the poorest means by which to measure. Since I have been teaching in conjunction with a supervisor I have found new means by which to measure one's teaching—a measurement based on professional principles. I can safely say that during my two years' teaching under supervision I have given a third better service and with more interest. It has given me a desire and a willingness to strive to meet the professional standards held before me by the supervisor. Supervision takes one out of a rut and keeps him out. It relieves him of the monotony of teaching. It causes one to reach out beyond oneself. It holds before one a goal to which one may attain. It makes one feel the necessity of thoroughness. To remove supervision would cause a relaxing of effort on the part of many.

It is sometimes asserted that supervision may hamper the individuality of the teacher, preventing him from experimenting and developing unusual materials or methods of presentation.



Briggs reports <sup>1</sup> that 82.3 per cent of 116 teachers replying to a questionnaire do not think that in their own experiences there is this effect, and an additional 4.4 per cent report that they have been hampered in ways that should be judged insignificant or at least unimportant. These figures should be interpreted, however, only in the light of repeated statements that there had been no supervision at all or that it had been of such nature as to have little possibility of hampering the ingenious or the irregular. Two quotations from letters of teachers are added:

Whether or not one's individuality is hampered depends on the supervision. I think of two supervisors who were entirely different, the one allowing me to use my judgment on all matters, but at the same time keeping in close touch with what I was doing and offering constructive suggestions, the other narrowing me to details so that I felt pinned down and hampered in a great many things. I never knew whether by taking the initiative I was doing the right thing or whether the supervisor would object. I felt that he paid too much attention to trifles and this tends to narrow a teacher, certainly.

At the beginning of my career I was subjected to rigid discipline by the head of my department. The man knew how to teach German and his results were remarkable, but he had the reputation of not being able to keep teachers in his department; he treated them so severely. The man nearly killed me with supervision, example, direction, but I owe everything today to him. I hated him, but "stuck" because I felt he had something fine. I remained with him five years, and we became fast friends. Today I teach according to his ideas, with some changes. He taught through inspiring terror; I give the boys and girls fun—and get just as good results as he did—using methods similar to his. No day goes by but that I realize what I owe to his supervision. But he nearly drove me mad.

The following letters indicate at least that teachers have strong and effective attitudes resulting from their judgments of their principals.

<sup>1</sup> "Supervision in Secondary Education," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, 10:80-84, October, 1935.



DEAR MARGARET:

It's pleasant to have the first week-end intermission for drawing a breath and getting ready for the serious work of the year, but it's pleasant, too, to get back to the school. After teaching as long as I have one feels that somehow the children were a treasury in which one invests oneself year after year. The summer has given me a lot, which now I am eager to invest, economically and wisely, in these new youngsters—so young and yet so possible.

Principals come and principals go in our schools—some for one reason, some for another; and this fall we have a fresh specimen pausing with us *en route* upward. (He told us so himself.) It's amusing, even if a little difficult here and there, to recall the procession since I came ten years ago. First there was A, a pleasant, slap-you-on-the-back sort of person, whose whole notion of running a school was to jolly everybody into a sort of pseudo-happiness. He was "promoted" into business, where he is succeeding well enough. We "carried on" next with B, a cold-blooded executive. He didn't talk education with us either, but how wise he could look and how non-committal he could be when we went to him—until we learned better—for "advice"! But if he didn't talk education, he did talk—nay he preached—economy. Dear exuberant little Johnnie Phillips he suspended a week for throwing away a piece of chalk. After two years he became superintendent—naturally. Then came C. He was the tragedy of the series, a man of sound common sense and generous impulses, but Nature hadn't blessed him with early culture. He wore his school clothes to President Bradley's dinner and ate ice cream with a spoon; so of course he had to go. D doesn't count—at least, he didn't. *De mortuis nihil*.

And now we have E. He is a trained educator, he knows the conventions of life, and he is industrious. So far, so good. But he won't last. With all his advantages, the poor boy has already doomed himself by his patronizing airs. At the first teachers meeting he antagonized all of us whom he didn't amuse by his calm assumption that after our years of service here we knew nothing or less than nothing about our work. As he talked on and on I glanced about and took an inventory: Miss Wilkins with her refinement and tact, Mr. Frank with his imperturbable calm and patience, Lucy Yancey with her tremendous energy and sharp tongue, Lola Bell who has nursed more discontented pupils back to interest and industry than the rest of us together, and so on through the corps. Of course the usual crop of new teachers we don't know yet. But Mr. E. knows, he *said* he did, and he never forgot to imply our ignorance and incompetence.



Then at assembly he offended half the old pupils and failed to stimulate the new ones. I wonder what reports went to three hundred homes after that first talk, and what support he can count on. Poor boy, he's in bad at the start—all, or almost all, because he can't imagine how other people feel and think, or that they do feel and think. He's off on the wrong foot, and at the end of the year he'll be off on the right train.

And finally—I mustn't bore you too long chattering about this temporary disturbance of ours—when he made his first round of “inspection” he found nothing but faults, and he made no bones about telling us about them, even though the pupils heard or guessed all that he said. What will it profit the school if he convinces everybody, us included, that we are all wrong, and he is entirely right? After all that we have put into the school, the best we had, I have a notion it's quite as much ours as his anyway.

Now, I'm through with that topic. Being human still, I had to get it out of my system, and it was better to write it to you than to add to the cumulating hostility by a verbal contribution in the rest room. We'll get on well enough, for now each of us “antiques” will paddle her own canoe, while the chief might have had us all working together for a common good. Why couldn't the Lord combine all the virtues once in a while and send us a real leader!

Affectionately your sister,

AGNES.

DEAR GRETCHEN:

This morning school began again. That word *again*, which writes itself in italics, marks another milestone, and I am forced to wonder where I am getting after these seven years of teaching. A delightful summer—friends, books, leisure, and now school *again*. The same building, the same desk, the same subject, the same pupils—under different names, of course. The only thing new is the principal, and he is *dreadfully* new. He is young and I feared he would do as his predecessor did two years ago, try to change everything instant—  
not because everything was wrong, but because he felt it necessary to do something to make us know he was on the job.

But I must say this for our young friend, we got under way this morning with the minimum of confusion and loss of time. Of course there was at first the boisterous noise of the pupils as they came in bubbling over with animal spirits accumulated during the summer, most of them ready, I dare say, to give or to accept a challenge from teachers and principal alike. But our young boss, instead of spending futile effort—trying to shut them up, gave them something to do. He had his plans all ready and in an hour—take it



from me, as Jed would say—we were under way as if we'd been running a week.

This morning he came into my room as unostentatiously as a friend, gave me a nod to go on, and sat quietly through the whole period. Think of it, a whole period with never a peep, and he a principal! But he seemed to know what he was looking for, and the word that he said as he left the room made me think he was looking for the good.

It was the first recognition of what I've tried to do, the first real honest-to-goodness praise I've ever had. Other people have superficially flattered me, but this man knows good teaching, I can see that, and overlooking my blunders he saw into the heart of my effort. I'm for him—strong! And when he comes again I'm going to show him how really good I can be.

And now to bed. I'm all ready for tomorrow, and—do you know?—I'm a little eager to get into harness again, all of us pulling together for the young savages that have come to us.

Faithfully your friend,

JANE.

Although the attitudes of teachers toward supervision here quoted are interesting and at the same time significant of what principals actually attempt with regard to the improvement of instruction, they should not be regarded as immutable nor the inevitable results of supervision of a different kind. They indicate some of the supervisory activities that teachers want, but not necessarily what they should want or what they can by skilled leadership be made to want. They suggest either directly or by implication some things that a supervisor should avoid, but he will have to work out the comprehensive program in accord with such principles as are discussed in this book. Teachers will inevitably welcome good supervision skillfully administered.

### EXERCISES

1. What conception of supervision is necessary to justify the thesis that "all teachers should be supervised"?
2. What elements of supervision are desirable for all teachers? Which are most important for the strong? Which for the weak? Which for the beginners?
3. Characterize some teacher whom you know well and state what kind of supervision promises to be most effective with him.



4. Are teachers' attitudes toward supervision as reported in accord with your observation? Account for them. By what means and to what extent do you think they could be changed?

5. On taking charge of a school the principal finds that he has four new teachers, two of them inexperienced, and six teachers who have served the school from three to twenty years. Of the six, Miss A, mathematics, is 58 years old; Mr. B, Latin, 47; Mrs. C, history, 34. The former principal has left these memoranda: "Miss A, clear in exposition, rigorous in drill, set in her ways. She hasn't changed in the memory of man—and won't. She is a good mathematics teacher if let alone. Well connected in town.—Mr. B, lovable and easy-going, important influence on the students, active in church and lodges. He teaches Latin as it was taught him a quarter of a century ago, venerating without loving it. He is too busy with important personal matters, in school and out, to read professional literature.—Mrs. C, a natural teacher but for family reasons limited in her formal training. She knows the history that she teaches and believes it the most important subject for influencing character. She is active in promoting civic activities and in interesting her students in them. An eager, tireless worker."

With these limited data prepare a supervisory program for the first two weeks, stating clearly what you would hope to accomplish. What preparation would you make? What follow-up would you plan? State two or three means that you might use to influence A, B, and C.



## CHAPTER IV

---

### ORGANIZATION FOR SUPERVISION

---

**Types of Organization.**—Organization for supervision is characterized as much by its neglect as by its variety. It is true that everywhere some kind of paper provision is made for improving instruction, but the officers entrusted with the responsibility tend to become immersed in personal relations of a semi-professional nature and in administering the machinery that makes teaching possible. Engelhardt and others report after studying selected schools, "It is rare to find, except in the case of committees studying curriculum construction, administrative committees that are organized primarily to create and to project standard practices that will serve to coördinate school services, and that will bring about coöperation among the divisions of the schools and between the schools and the central office."

Among the variations in organization for supervision, the most typical are reported <sup>1</sup> as the following:

*The dualistic system.* Developing from the failure anywhere in history to provide for a coördinated plan, this popular system divides the responsibility for supervision between the principal and the superintendent or his representative, an assistant or a special supervisor. It tends to make the principal feel that his job is primarily the administration of the school, a feeling that he may too readily accept without serious effort to improve instruction himself, and it tends also to weaken his authority. Special supervisors are usually heavily burdened and in consequence are inclined to have too little time for promoting and adequately following up a program with the secondary school teachers. The supervisors as a rule drop in and out, and their influence is exerted too seldom and too sporadically in high schools to have great results. Only when a special supervisor is

<sup>1</sup> *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, pp. 52-57.



persistent in his efforts will a fundamental objection to this system become apparent—that is the inevitable conflict between supervision and administration. They ought both to be carried on with one mind, whether in one or more persons, always fixed on the objectives of education. Even the placing of the classroom furniture has been known to result in such a conflict between supervisor and principal that the efforts of the former were subsequently thwarted by an unappreciative administrator.

A variation of the dualistic plan provides for a special supervisor for the high school, in some instances responsible to the superintendent and in others directly to the principal. The arguments for such a supervisor have been well presented by Burton<sup>1</sup> and an exposition of a plan using such organization at Long Beach, California, has been made by Klopp.<sup>2</sup> Billett also discusses the plan and reports in Monograph 11 of the National Survey of Secondary Education, pages 170–172, illustrations of its use. “The plan,” he writes, “operates with apparent success, although it violates a theory commonly held to the effect that the chief business of the principal should be supervision and not administration.”

*The line and staff organization.*—The line and staff organization recognizes two types of workers, namely, line officers and staff officers.

1. Staff officers are technical experts in charge of service or subject departments or departments including groups of subjects. A complete set of service departments would probably include: (1) a department of statistics and records; (2) a personnel department charged with the selection, assignment, and evaluation of the personnel; (3) a department of tests and measurements, charged with measuring, grading, and classifying pupils; (4) a curriculum department, charged with the selection and organization of subject-matter; (5) a department of method, charged with the study of teaching and learning procedures; (6) a department of textbooks, supplies, and equipment, charged with the selection, distribution, and evaluation of textbooks, supplies, and equipment; (7) a building department, charged with planning, constructing, and equipping new buildings; and (8) a department of expenditures, charged with

<sup>1</sup> W. H. Burton, “What Could a Director of Teaching Do in a High School?” *California Quarterly of Secondary Education*, 8:51–52, October, 1932.

<sup>2</sup> W. J. Klopp, “Releasing the Creative Power of Teachers,” *American School Board Journal*, 85:31–32, July, 1932.



budget making and financial management. An organization of subject departments might include one department for each of the several school subjects, such as music, arithmetic, art, geography, and the like.

2. The line officers are executives, such as: department heads within a school, building principals, assistant superintendents, and superintendents. They are in charge of departments in a school, single buildings, groups of buildings, or major divisions of the educational system.

3. Contrasting the two, we may say that staff officers are advisory experts, directly responsible to and operating through the superintendent of schools. Staff officers have no administrative authority over line officers or teachers. The line officers are administrative executives clothed with power. The flow of authority is from superintendent, or assistant superintendent, to principals, to teachers. Dualism of control is thus eliminated, the policy is accepted of a single executive head being followed throughout all departments and levels of administration. On the other hand, expert technical services involved in supervision are provided for through the organization of the staff departments, either for services or subjects. The values and benefits accruing from the work of these specialists are introduced into the school system through the superintendent or an assistant designated for the purpose. Line officers, then, systematically operate the educational program. Obviously, under this system, supervision may be emphasized or subordinated, depending upon the policy and point of view of the superintendent.<sup>1</sup>

Such an elaboration of this organization as has been outlined is possible, of course, only in cities of considerable size or in well-to-do districts or counties where there is a high degree of centralization. But to whatever extent it is used, its effectiveness for supervision is likely to depend primarily on the principal who accepts as his chief responsibility the improvement of education in the school. However great the superintendent's interest in supervision, he is likely to find little time to devote directly to the high school, and in consequence he must rely on the principal, except in small schools. The latter as a rule is left to do pretty much what he pleases, getting only an occasional jog from his superior officer. He is likely to have abundant freedom to initiate and to carry on whatever supervisory program he can devise and make time for, though of course, as a

<sup>1</sup> *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, pp. 54-55.



matter of wise policy as well as for the help that he may get, he will frequently consult the superintendent and seek his advice and approval. As Douglass and Boardman well say, this organization "enhances the position of the principal, since he is directly responsible for the instructional results and improvement of teaching in the school and his authority is not challenged by any parallel agency attempting to supervise teachers directly."

Ayer and Barr <sup>1</sup> have pointed out that this plan may exist in several types:

(1) The line-and-staff organization with special supervisors subordinated. Under this scheme special supervisors are eliminated or reduced to minor supervisory rôles.

(2) The non-divisional line-and-staff organization with special supervision vertically organized. Under this plan special supervisors have advisory power along instructional lines, but do not have administrative control over the teachers. All administrative and supervisory authority centers with a deputy superintendent.

(3) The divisional line-and-staff organization with special supervision vertically organized. This plan does not differ essentially from (2) above, except that authority and activities head up under divisional heads in charge of elementary schools, junior and senior high schools.

*The coördinate system.* This system, which is possible only in the larger cities, provides for an assistant superintendent who is responsible for coördinating the functions of the principal and of the special supervisors or other service agencies. As supervisors, both the principal and the special supervisors of various kinds "are assumed to be equally interested in the improvement of educational procedure; as administrators, each is assigned coördinate responsibility—the principal over a group of teachers and pupils, the director of a department over a group of assistants and special services; and as co-workers, they are expected to coöperate deliberately, working at the same administrative level and each with authority over his own special field under conditions set up by the superior administrative staff."

This system transfers from the principal to the superintendent or his representative the active responsibility for a program to

<sup>1</sup> Fred C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, *The Organization of Supervision*, D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1929.



improve education in a single school. It has the advantage of centralizing responsibility in a single person, but it so complicates the machinery that it is difficult to run successfully. When supervision is not effective under this system, it is neglected by the largest number of diversely responsible agents. Obviously it depends on a highly capable officer who has not only abundant time but also persistent energy and tact. The system inevitably results in overlapping authority, which usually sooner or later causes conflicts. To minimize this danger the assistant superintendent in charge will need to work out with the help of the principal and the special supervisors a comprehensive educational and a consequent supervisory program, and to allocate somewhat definitely to each agent his special responsibilities and authority. The scheme, when well carried out, avoids the division and frequently conflicting authority inevitable in the dualistic plan, but it creates the difficulty of securing a continuous unit of activity by coördinate agents working in the same building where their responsible chief seldom is present to resolve conflicts. It seems that as a rule it would be better to center in the principal the responsibility and authority for supervision in a school, giving him such administrative assistance as is necessary to make his services effective.

When special supervisors are to be provided, the question arises as to whether they shall work on one level,—that is, in the high school alone—or vertically by a subject from the lower into the higher grades. The advantage of the former is that the supervisor is more likely to be competent and hence effective in the narrower field; the chief advantage of the second is that it facilitates articulation between the elementary and secondary schools, emphasizing common objectives, the steady, unbroken progress of each pupil, and no sudden changes in methods of teaching. Obviously for vertical supervision to be effective there must have been developed a philosophy of education of which all administrative officers, supervisors, and teachers are conscious and to which they give allegiance.

These types of organization for supervision are largely of academic interest to students of this book, for presumably they are concerned to learn how they may make themselves most effective in the system in which they find themselves. If they have the responsibility for organizing a plan for supervising the



work of a number of coördinated schools, they will need much more information about the advantages and disadvantages of each type of organization than can be given here. However, in planning one's own activities it is well to have as a background a general knowledge of the several most common plans of organization. To attempt interpretation of reports of the distribution of various supervisory activities among the several officers of school systems yields little profit, for one must know the size of each community and the factors of personality even to begin to understand them.

The chief and persistent questions that any principal should ask himself are: (1) What needs to be done to improve the instruction in this school? (2) To what extent can I contribute to this improvement? and (3) What means can I most effectively use? After these questions are answered, supervision is a matter of persistence along the indicated road. There is such variation in all parts of the country in the responsibility assigned to or assumed by the several officers of the schools, that every principal will find himself fairly free to devise for himself whatever program he thinks wise. If it is reasonable, his superior officers are likely to give it eventual approval, at least in enough details to keep him fully occupied.

Although it is important that a general organization for supervision be effected for a city system of schools, it is not of great concern to secondary school principals. They will need to work under the organization made by their official superiors. The great majority of public high schools are in communities too small to provide supervisors, either general or special. The most common practices are: (1) for the superintendent to assume direct responsibility for supervision in the high school, usually for various reasons not devoting much time to it, or (2) for the superintendent to leave the entire matter to the principal, who gets little help or none from him. In all but a very small number of secondary schools the principal has all the freedom that he could want to use any sensible means for the improvement of the teaching.

Ideally, of course, the superintendent should have developed a comprehensive educational program for the entire system of schools for which he is responsible. The word "developed" is used advisedly for, if he is wise, he will first have urged all of



the principals and ultimately all of the teachers to make such contributions as they can to the formulation of such a program, which by their coöperation they will understand better and to which they are more likely to give loyalty. No program that is devised solely by the superintendent and promulgated as something to be uncritically accepted can be successfully carried out. Unfortunately in most communities a comprehensive program that is sound, clear, and sufficiently detailed is neither developed nor promulgated. The principal of each school is expected to carry on the general tradition, making the work as good as he can by such supervisory means as he sees fit to use. He is not commonly either embarrassed or to a great degree stimulated by pressure from above to supervision of any kind. The principals of secondary schools in the United States, therefore, have a large amount of freedom and a corresponding amount of responsibility for improving instruction as they see fit.

When there is active concern by the superintendent for supervision in the high school, he is likely to follow one of two procedures: he either assumes the responsibility himself or he delegates it to the principal. In the former case, especially in small communities and when he himself has been principal of the school before becoming superintendent, he may direct the policy of supervision, visit classes, confer with teachers, hold group meetings, and generally attempt to improve instruction. In varying degrees he will use the principal as an assistant supervisor, directing him as to detailed procedures. This plan seldom is effective, for the superintendent gradually finds himself overwhelmed by other duties which force him to neglect direct supervision in the high school. Moreover, if he is astute, he realizes that he is thus missing an opportunity to extend his own efficiency by developing power in the principal. When the superintendent realizes that he cannot effectively carry on by himself the needed supervision in the high school and when he persists in the mistaken policy of central responsibility, he may provide either an assistant in general charge of instruction or supervisors of special subjects, the latter usually responsible to him for the subject in the entire system. The relations of the principal to such assistants of the superintendent will be discussed later.



The second procedure by the superintendent who is deeply concerned to improve instruction is to delegate responsibility entirely to the principal. This procedure is strongly endorsed. It does not imply that the superintendent will not be actively concerned with the instructional program of the high school or that he will cease to visit its classes and to furnish all possible help for bettering the program and the practice. The difference lies in his functioning through the principal. With him the superintendent will hold frequent and extended conferences regarding both the general program and the details that may be used to make it successful. He will require frequent informal reports of progress and will encourage the principal to seek advice. He will after observing classes make his suggestions to the teachers through the principal or, when on unusual occasion it seems wise to make suggestions direct, he will at once inform the principal so that they may become a part of the general program. He will, when it is advisable and possible, furnish special supervisors who will serve as technical advisers to the principal working under his direction and through him entirely. By this procedure the principalship is elevated to an office of professional importance and the power of the superintendent is gradually extended through the developed efficiency of his assistants.

This is the procedure toward which the professional principal will work, toward the adoption of which he will endeavor to influence the superintendent by means of the manifested success of the efforts that he makes through permitted, if not assigned, responsibility. This procedure demands that the principal have or that he acquire competence. The principal ambitious to grow professionally can win recognition and assigned responsibility from his superintendent partly by doing well what he is permitted to do in improving instruction and also in efficient administration. He who is faithful in little things will be entrusted with greater ones. "Are superintendents justified in delegating major responsibilities to principals who seem to prefer petty routine? Can superintendents magnify an executive position which the incumbents look upon as a stepping stone to other work?"<sup>1</sup> The procedure here advocated is

<sup>1</sup> "The Principal at Work on His Problems," *National Education Association Research Bulletin*, March, 1931.



dangerous to a principal who is not professionally competent or actively ambitious to become a leader in education. When generally adopted it will demand the type of person that the position requires.

**Some Principles of Organization for Supervision.<sup>1</sup>**

1. *The superintendent of schools is responsible for the educational effectiveness of the entire school system.* When the board of education approves of general policies, the superintendent should be free to develop them in ways that his professional knowledge indicates as probably best. He should bear the same relationship to the principal of each school that the board of education bears to him. In addition, he should manifest a lively interest in the detailed program that the principal proposes, and be easily available to give professional advice. Only in rare instances, when the principal is obdurate in persisting in a manifestly poor procedure, should the superintendent exercise his authority to dictate a better plan. It is usually wiser to preserve the principal's self-respect and spirit of independence, which may lead to growth toward better procedures, than to substitute what seems better in the face of his opposition.

2. *There should be a comprehensive and unified educational program for the entire school system.* This, which should be developed by the staff under the leadership of the superintendent, along with the available personnel, should determine the organization and the activities for supervision. If such a program does not exist, as not infrequently is the case, the principal should lead the teachers to develop such a one for the high school, articulating it with a more comprehensive program such as they think there ought to be. The most effective supervision is not possible without this. Efforts of the teachers to devise a program may force the superintendent to develop a more extensive one for the entire school system. Whether it does or not, the principal's responsibility for his own school is no whit lessened.

3. *Every element of the school organization should contribute assuredly to the integration of the educational program.* There is too much inclination in practice to focus upon the improvement of instruction in English or music, or even upon such minor

<sup>1</sup> See a discussion of a similar set of principles in the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, pp. 49-52.



techniques as assignments or questioning, without sufficient regard for a unified attack on obstacles to the educational growth of pupils. Whatever is attempted by the principal, his assistants, or the teachers themselves should be planned as a part of the whole program leading to the ultimate objectives. The more the organization is complicated by heads of departments, psychologists, and other specialists, the greater the principal's responsibility to secure integration of all agencies for a common end.

4. *Responsibilities for supervision should be definitely assigned or agreed on.* This principle is sound whether applied to a complex organization, involving in a large city numerous special supervisors under the direction of the central office, or to the internal organization of a single school. After there has been agreement on the general educational program, each agency must know what its special responsibilities are, not only that there may be a minimum of uneconomical or of embarrassing overlappings, but also that there may be coördinated effectiveness. The principal is especially concerned with this responsibility when apportioning duties to heads of departments, counselors, home-room teachers, and such other assistants as he may have. It is often necessary for the principal, too, to take the initiative in seeing that there is common understanding as to the respective responsibilities and duties of the agencies sent into the school by the superintendent.

5. *The principal should have the entire responsibility, subject to approval by the superintendent, for the effectiveness of the educational program of the high school.* When in doubt as to the limits of his authority, he should assume that he has it. He will seldom be overridden. This principle urges that all ancillary agencies, like special supervisors and the research bureau, shall be directly responsible to the head of the school, that when working with the teachers they shall follow a program previously approved, and that they shall report to him their recommendations rather than give orders or even suggestions directly to the teachers. The special supervisors should be considered advisers to the principal rather than independent or even coördinate agencies for the improvement of instruction. Supervisory help is best given when the teacher is considered as a whole individual, who is best known by the principal, working as part



of a whole faculty. When a principal ignores or refuses to adopt the suggestions of supervisors or other expert advisers, he renders himself accountable to the superintendent, who has furnished these services, and is challenged to justify a better program of his own devising. If the principal is to be the responsible leader of the school, his influence should not be undermined by others. The ultimate good of the school will be best promoted if other supervisors make their contributions through him. All this assumes, of course, that the principal makes himself worthy of this leadership.

6. *The teachers should be primarily responsible to the principal alone.* There is a common practice among superintendents of assuming direct responsibility for teachers, who are frequently too numerous to be known well or adequately directed. Inasmuch as the superintendent is anxious to build up the whole school system, he would much better relinquish the responsibility for teachers to the principal chosen as their leader, retaining of course the right to go over his head in emergencies when manifest mistakes have been made. By this practice he not only relieves himself of much work, but he strengthens the principal for the assumption of still larger responsibilities. By constantly advising with the principals and delegating responsibility regarding their programs for promoting the growth of teachers, the superintendent multiplies his own power. By having all of his assistants work through the principals, he promotes the probability of an integrated program of education and of teacher growth.

7. *The principal should delegate some special supervisory activities.* Like the superintendent, the principal can multiply his power by using assistants whom he directs and trains for effective work and growth. When a school is large enough to afford heads of departments and other assisting agencies, the principal is not relieved of responsibility; rather, he is challenged to lead them in the light of the general program of education and of supervision to unified effort to contribute maximally to the commonly understood and approved objectives. The principal who appoints assistants and then leaves each to pursue his own way is simply professionally incompetent or else he resigns his leadership. He should direct, encourage, and coördinate them and synthesize their contributions.



8. *The more intelligent the coöperation with the principal by his assistants, the more potent the supervision will be.* This means that every assistant of any kind should thoroughly know the entire educational program, and not only know it but enthusiastically believe in it, preferably having had a share in its development. Then after his special responsibilities have been agreed on and accepted, he should be left free to exercise his ingenuity in devising the details of his work and held responsible for results. Of course he will be expected to advise frequently with the principal, who becomes a supervisor of supervisors. As the assistant grows in power and self-confidence, the principal is released for more and more time which he can devote to the development of the larger policies of the school. The mistakes that assistants make are of small importance when compared to what they learn, or can be led to learn, while making them.

9. *The principal should make use of all ancillary agencies and make them available to his assistants.* Some school systems are rich in ancillary agencies, such as research bureaus, curriculum specialists, psychologists, guidance experts, and special supervisors; many systems have one or more of them or can get aid from those in the state departments of education or in universities. It should go without saying that the wise principal will continuously use such of these as he needs to promote, directly or indirectly, his supervisory program, and, more than this, that he should make their services available to his assistants and even to the teachers who can use them effectively.

10. *The organization should be flexible.* It is a mistake to set up a theoretical organization and to follow it without regard to the personnel and its changes. An assistant principal peculiarly able in discovering teachers' special aptitudes or in diagnosing their difficulties may indicate as desirable a type of supervisory organization which would be fatally ineffective were he succeeded by a man who is a genius in administrative details but neither interested nor competent in supervision. Even heads of departments should be assigned duties and responsibilities varying according to their manifest competencies or promise. It is stupid to set up an organization, however right it is theoretically or however logical it may look on paper, and then inflexibly preserve it despite the differences and the changes in



personnel. As a matter of fact, the organization should be continually modified as experience develops its weaknesses and reveals better possibilities.

**Supervision in Small Schools.**—In small schools the principal has neither the help nor the confusion attendant upon complex organization and administration. Frequently he teaches a large part of the day and has only a fraction left which he may use for both administration and supervision. Seldom can he visit many classes. Usually the superintendent has assumed responsibility for supervision, giving more or less time to it. Under such conditions what can the principal do? If he is ambitious to grow professionally, he will seek from his superior officer responsibility for some formal part of the supervisory program. By teachers meetings and by individual conferences he can seek to achieve the more important purposes of supervision presented here. He can persevere in his effort, steadily making himself more competent and more effective until he is ready for larger opportunities for professional service. Many a principal is restless and ambitious for a larger job when he has failed to take advantage of his opportunities in a small one. If he does not find or create opportunities for professional service in the limitations of a small school, there is little likelihood that he will prove a professional leader in a large one.

There is a distinct tendency to enlarge high schools by consolidation and to increase the amount of supervisory help by agents working from the office of the county superintendent or the state department of education. Maryland had been a leader in effective centralized supervision. But whatever help is furnished from the occasional visits of an outside supervisor, the responsibility of the principal still remains. He must carry on after the supervisor has departed, following up his work or devising plans of his own to meet needs as they develop. He may have little time and he may be doubtful of his competence, especially in comparison with the outside expert; but unless he continuously attempts to exercise such talents as he has under existing conditions, he has no right to be considered a principal or even to aspire to be one.



## EXERCISES

1. Which type of organization for supervision seems best for the community in which you are working or in which you plan to work?
2. What are the actual advantages and disadvantages of the type of organization with which you are most familiar?
3. How could the organization be improved? Assume no immediate changes in personnel.
4. What supervisory activities are possible to the high school principal under the organization with which you are most familiar?
5. After thoroughly understanding the ten principles presented for organization for supervision, criticize each one as to its soundness and indicate how its acceptance, with or without modification, would affect the organization and practice in the community that you know best.
6. Study the list of principles presented in the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence and decide if you think those set forth in this book ought to be modified or increased.
7. What supervision could you undertake with most promise of success with the teachers and of your own professional growth if you were principal of a small high school and teaching every period of the day but one?



## CHAPTER V

---

### THE PRINCIPAL A RESPONSIBLE LEADER

---

**Leadership Is Essential.**—For effective group work there must be leadership. However competent and well intentioned teachers are, they do not, by working as individuals, make a good school—or, more accurately, a school as good as they could make it by working under such leadership as results in the acceptance of common goals, in encouragement and stimulus, in direction, and in continuous coöperative service. Without leadership each teacher tends to over-emphasize isolated and highly specialized learning, presenting it much as he was taught or to some extent as he was variously taught to teach; and many teachers without leadership gradually lose professional ambition and cease to develop in their jobs. Without growth toward constantly higher ideals there is inevitable regression in effectiveness, both absolute and relative to progress elsewhere. The agent who has the chief responsibility for direct leadership in a school is the principal. However active the superintendent may be and however many special supervisors he may provide, the principal still retains the major direct responsibility for seeing that teachers grow in coördinated effectiveness.

Supervision of teachers differs materially from the direction of workers in industry, for teachers are on the same social level as the principal; they frequently have as good academic training as the principal, if not better; they all have some degree of professional training and, for the most part, experience; they feel assurance of superiority in the field of their specialization; and they often do not realize the need of help from any outside source, especially to forward them toward unappreciated goals.

The more difficult the task, the greater the challenge. It takes little skill to direct successfully workers who are ignorant and officially dependent for their jobs on doing as they are told; it takes great skill to create an attractive vision of remote



possibilities and then continuously to direct growth in greater ability to approximate it. It has often been truly said, as the principal, so the school. General Grant is reported to have said, "There are no poor regiments, only poor colonels." It is possible that there can be good individual teaching even with an ineffective principal; but a school cannot be good unless a principal furnishes skilled leadership toward growth in unity of professional effort.

The undoubted trend is toward greater acceptance by the principal of responsibility for the improvement of instruction. "The principalship has rapidly developed during the last decade, changing from a routine position to one demanding the highest type of instructional skill and leadership. In most school systems, the building principal has been made responsible for the instructional conditions in his building, representing the supervisory staff in all matters of administration and instruction."<sup>1</sup> This development has come about despite lack of pressure from the public, the superintendent, or the teachers who have not realized the need. It is evidence of a growing appreciation by principals themselves of the paramount importance of the school as an educational institution and of their own responsibility to be potent forces in promoting national as well as local welfare. It can safely be prophesied that in the not remote future principals will be selected and retained chiefly in terms of their competence to improve instruction.

**The Bases of Leadership.**—To be a professional leader a principal must first realize the need, the possibilities, and the obligation of supervision. Whatever his preparation, he must accept the challenge to learn steadily how to improve teachers in service. He should make clear when seeking a new position or when continuing an old one that he considers this his chief duty, and he should urge for the sake of economical effectiveness that he be given such assistance as will relieve him of less important duties. Any school board is likely to be receptive to an argument that a principal who can by supervision add to the value of the teachers should be released from teaching, overseeing study halls, policing the building, and performing clerical work that can be as well done by others at far less cost. It is a professional disgrace that the highest paid person in a

<sup>1</sup> *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, p. 64.



school often is permitted or required to perform the lowest grade service. To be a leader a principal must organize his work for that purpose and provide time systematically for it. And he must persist in his efforts, not merely to lead but to learn better how to lead, in the face of lack of appreciation, suspicion, and even of active opposition.

Leadership is meaningless unless it has direction, and that direction must be furnished by an ideal of education. And the ideal of what education should be, supported by knowledge of techniques that lead youth economically toward attaining it, will indicate the directions in which teachers should be led to grow. In comparison with leadership for growth, in which teachers must of necessity willingly and actively coöperate, everything else is of relatively small importance. Supervisory leadership is somewhat like parents' activities with their children; it will not neglect the conditions under which healthy growth is most easily possible and it will when necessary perform, or have performed, corrective operations, but it will center its effort on encouraging the growth possible only by persistence in the proper sorts of activity.

**The Leader Is Not a Dictator.**—An effective leader of teachers is not a dictator. Arbitrary official commands that a teacher must do this or that in certain specified ways to grow in educational effectiveness may have an immediate temporary effect, but will never lead to continuous growth in self-confident power. Nor is a leader most effective by influencing teachers through his personality. As Alberty and Thayer say, "The followers of a magnetic leader can switch from one cause to another without inner conflict because their allegiance is personal only." The leader of a school is successful only by developing an "our attitude" toward the problems that they face in common and the responsibility for solving them by continuous coöperative effort. There are no permanent complete solutions of educational problems; and if there were, the desired continuous growth by teachers could not be effected by the principal's imparting officially the secret of correct procedures.

The "our attitude" can be secured by the use of many means. It is seldom possessed by a principal who habitually thinks or speaks of "my school" and "my teachers." It begins



by sharing with the teachers, or by developing with them, an understanding of the nature of society and the responsibility of the school to it. From such understanding will come an appreciation of the consequent challenges and problems of the school, with a feeling that these are the responsibility of every teacher, the humblest beginner as well as the most experienced veteran. And appreciation of problems will in turn lead to activity to solve them, either by invention or by intelligent receptivity to the proposals of others or to practices elsewhere. The sooner teachers can be made to realize that no one else knows the local situation well enough to give final answers to their questions and that they cannot even appreciate suggestions by others until they have attempted to find answers for themselves, the sooner the principal manifests real powers of leadership.

The effects of sharing with teachers, either in groups or in individual conferences, the problems of the school are far-reaching. In the first place, it develops a professional self-respect. Every teacher likes to feel that he has a share in the responsibility for formulating policies and for devising means of carrying them out. In the second place, it develops a mutual-ity of interest that leads to an integrated faculty, a necessity if there is to be concerted action for a more effective program. And, in the third place, it results in contributions frequently of the highest value. The group mind is always more fertile than the individual mind. It stimulates individuals, and discussions from several points of view lead to the soundest possible decisions. Moreover, it gives the public a degree of confidence seldom possible when decisions are made by one individual alone.<sup>1</sup>

There will occasionally come times, however, when the principal, as the one officially responsible for the school, will judge that he has to act contrary to the advice of his colleagues. In education, procedures are far more often better or worse than right or wrong. Judgments will differ as to the relative merit or the probable effects of proposed procedures. In some instances a variety of practices may be approved for experimental purposes; in others the principal may be convinced that irre-

<sup>1</sup> See J. K. Van Denburg, *The Junior High School Idea*, pp. 354-377, Henry Holt and Co., for a discussion of teacher participation in school administration.



mediable harm may result from a practice that the majority of the teachers approve. Decisions on important matters should seldom, if ever, be made by vote. Few innovations are so important that they cannot be delayed until opposition has been won over by argument or by wise compromise or at least until it has ceased to be active and emotional.

When the principal judges it necessary to act contrary to the counsel of his colleagues, an infrequent contingency, he should attempt to prevent or to minimize any possible bad effects. He may continue the explanation and arguments from his point of view in further conferences with individuals or small groups of the opposition. He may frankly state that while he respects the arguments on the other side he is not convinced and that as the official responsible for the program of the school he must for the time follow his own judgment, which he is willing to change when it proves not to be for the best; and following this course he appeals for a fair trial and openmindedness on the part of those who think otherwise. Sometimes it is more effective to give to the teachers most hostile to the proposed plan responsibility for explaining and justifying it to others—parents, pupils, or the public—and for putting it into effect. Not infrequently this results in a support more ardent than any arguments could produce.

**Constructive Leadership.**—The leader of a school never gives the impression that he is a detective seeking to find faults of omission or of commission. One experienced principal in a large city when asked what he did in the way of supervision said, "I wear rubber-soled shoes so that I can walk down the corridor without being heard. I listen at the doors and when all is quiet I know that everything is all right." He probably would have been happy at the door of a morgue. But worse than his idea of supervision as disciplinary correction, he gave the teachers the impression that he was attempting only to find their poor practices. They became timorous in his presence, secretive, and entirely unwilling frankly to lay before him their troubles and to seek his help. There could be little wonder that the faculty had small professional spirit and manifested no substantial effort for professional growth. The school continued year in and year out practices that caused the smallest amount of criticism by anybody. In order to lead, a principal must



know what the teachers are doing, but he will give the impression that he is seeking primarily to learn the best that each one does and is capable of. When he observes faults he will attempt to repair them as one would patch a punctured automobile tire in order that the journey may be safely continued expeditiously to the desired destination. Supervisory leadership is primarily creative and constructive.

In order to facilitate teachers' professional growth the principal will attempt to remove causes of unhappiness, especially in the classroom, and to develop a spirit of fortitude toward conditions that cannot be remedied. Many administrative activities are wholly for this purpose; indeed, all of them directly or indirectly should be. Equipment and supplies should be adequate; the pupils should be got to class regularly and on time; and their behavior should be such that the best teaching is possible. In *The Principal and His School*<sup>1</sup> Cubberley gives succinctly a number of practical suggestions that will prove helpful to a teacher having trouble with discipline.

From *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision* is quoted the following:

THE SUPERVISOR MUST KNOW:	THE SUPERVISOR MUST BE ABLE TO:
The science and philosophy of education.	Confer with various types of individuals in such way as to accomplish purposes.
The principles, common problems, and accepted procedures of school supervision.	Confer with various types of groups, organize and direct conferences and meetings in such way as to accomplish purposes.
The principles, problems, and accepted procedures of school administration.	Do long-time planning: of supervisory activities, remedial teaching, and improvement in service.
The principles of general method or pedagogy, with perhaps some familiarity with special methods in certain fields.	Demonstrate good teaching procedure, that is, in terms of general method.
The psychology of learning, of childhood, of adolescence. General social psychology.	Analyze objectively observed teaching procedure, and organize intelligent critical discussions thereof.
The accepted procedures of research: statistical, laboratory, group experimental.	

<sup>1</sup> Pages 289-290.



- The nature and use of simple statistical terms and procedures.
- The theory underlying the various uses of standard tests and scales. The principles of test construction.
- The present curriculum problem, methods of attack, types of courses being developed.
- School and child hygiene.
- Certain training other than professional which will not be listed here.
- Methods and technique of child accounting—pupil personnel work and guidance, including school progress and age-grade charts.
- Principles underlying leadership and coöperation—how to get on with people without friction—social intelligence.
- The evidence and findings of scientific studies of method.
- Construct and use reliable objective standards for the evaluation of teaching, the evaluation of texts, or of supplies.
- Secure the coöperation of individuals and groups in the foregoing and other activities.
- Construct brief analytical bibliographies and reviews of the recent periodicals and books.
- Write and circulate well-organized supervisory bulletins.
- Plan and carry on research and direct others in research. (In curriculum reconstruction, experimental teaching, development of information tests, etc.)
- Carry on testing programs, either for the lay public or the teaching body.
- Keep clear and adequate records of his own activities, a filing system.
- Develop teacher morale and professional spirit.
- Keep up with modern developments in education, which means that he must be familiar with the sources of new ideas, such as experimental schools, professional monographs, and periodicals.
- Speak clearly and easily before lay or professional audiences.

**The Personality of the Principal.**—In 1915 Crabtree reported that there was no available literature on the personal attributes of a successful supervisor; today it is abundant. But beyond including all the attributes that characterize the ideal man, there is little agreement on those attributes essential for the supervisor and there is a small amount of consequent definition helpful in selecting a supervisor or in directing one's growth in the proper direction. Barr and Burton after quoting <sup>1</sup> some

<sup>1</sup> *The Supervision of Instruction*, pp. 550–566.



returns to Crabtree's study and from the writings of Bird, Taylor, Wagner, and Kelley, list what they consider the most important personal characteristics and then discuss the question, "Can personality be developed?" In some respects it can; in others of course it cannot be.

Morrison reports <sup>1</sup> that the following percentage of prospective employers specified the characteristics mentioned below. (The rank numbers indicate that some requirements not pertinent to this discussion have been omitted.) The fact that so few of the employers mentioned several essential characteristics is evidence that they did not think of them rather than of disapproval. Further in the article Morrison makes some analysis of such desirable traits as indicated by "coöperation, delegates and oversees, keeps harmony, friendly but not familiar, assumes responsibility for mistakes, relative values, persistent energy, willingness to learn, leads but does not drive, grows, adapts ideas of others, commends, and interested."

TABLE VII

QUALITIES DESIRABLE FOR SUPERVISORS LISTED  
BY EMPLOYERS IN 40 INTERVIEWS (MORRISON)

2.	Leadership, 40%
5.	Ability to get on with people, 25%
9.5	Foresight, 10%
14.5	Consideration of opinions of others, 5%
14.5	Courage, 5%
14.5	Initiative, 5%
14.5	Vision, 5%
21.	Abundant energy, 2.5%
21.	Enthusiasm, 2.5%
21.	Originality, 2.5%
21.	Self-confidence, 2.5%
21.	Sense of fairness, 2.5%
21.	Tact, 2.5%

M. B. Kenwood has made the following tabulation of the characteristics mentioned by seventeen authors as desirable in a supervisor. The groupings are obviously and of necessity rough.

<sup>1</sup> Robert H. Morrison, "Qualities Leading to Appointment as School Supervisors and Administrators," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 12:505-511, November, 1926.



I	II	I	II
FREQUENCY OF QUALITIES AS A GROUP	FREQUENCY OF EACH QUALITY	FREQUENCY OF QUALITIES AS A GROUP	FREQUENCY OF EACH QUALITY
1. Sympathy	11	8. Loyalty	6
Kindness	6	Sincerity	6
Understanding	3	Fairness	5
Patience	2	Candor	1
Appreciation	1	Frankness	1
Generosity	1	Honesty	2
Geniality	5	Genuineness	4
Friendliness	2	Reliability	3
Amiability	1	Moral cleanliness	2
Courtesy	3	Ethical character	2
Charity	1	9. Good grooming	6
2. Coöperation	10	Well-poised	3
Promptness	2	Good health	4
Helpfulness	6	Good manners	2
Teaching spirit	3	Good breeding	1
3. Tact	8	10. Professional knowl- edge	6
4. Initiative	8	Intelligence	5
Originality	2	Broad scholarship	2
Adaptability	3	Reliable judgment	4
Resourcefulness	3	Progressiveness	2
Self-reliance	5	11. Executive ability	5
5. Self-control	7	Leadership	5
6. Open-mindedness	7	Courage	4
Ability to see an- other's view point	5	Industry	4
Democratic spirit	1	Firmness	3
7. Enthusiasm	6	Perseverance	2
Cheerfulness	4	Aggressiveness	2
Lofty ideals	3	Strong personality	1
Optimism	4	Decisiveness	1
Sense of humor	5	Systematic super- vision	2
		Foresight	2
		Vision	1
		Ability to make a good speech	1
		Ability to discipline	1

Gist states <sup>1</sup> that he thinks the following personal qualities should be found in a good principal:

<sup>1</sup> Arthur S. Gist, "Personnel Problems of the Principal," *Journal of the National Education Association*, p. 179. June, 1930.



(1) He should be a most social and human person, capable of accurately evaluating people from the human standpoint and highly successful in meeting and in getting along with all types of individuals. Success here requires a combination of personal qualities.

(2) He should be genuinely sincere in every respect to secure the highest type of personal confidence from all persons with whom he comes in contact.

(3) He should be an optimist who is always looking for the best, expecting the best, to the extent that his personality is contagious.

(4) He should be such a professional enthusiast that he elicits enthusiasm from all his coworkers.

(5) He should be so just and honest in all his opinions that personal bias can never influence him.

(6) He should be so firm and impartial that strong personalities in his corps cannot overshadow the points of excellence in less forceful teachers.

(7) He should be so broadminded that credit and appreciation for excellent work will be quickly and easily given to those meriting it.

(8) He should be so openminded that unessential details, an occasional mistake, or a poor lesson given will not prejudice him for all time against a teacher.

(9) He should be so frank and clearcut in his statements that no doubt is left as to his views.

(10) He should be so tactful that offense is not taken at his criticisms.

(11) He should be so sympathetic in his relationships that the teachers never feel depressed and discouraged.

(12) He should be too sensible and too closemouthed to discuss one teacher with another.

(13) He should be so approachable, accessible, and resourceful that the teacher will never feel hesitant about coming to him.

(14) He should have poise and such a high degree of self-control that his teachers have confidence in his ability to weather any storm.

(15) He should be such a hard worker himself that he sets a good example for his teachers.

(16) He should have the courage of his convictions that his teachers may have confidence in his opinions.

(17) He should be so tidy in his personal appearance that he commands the respect of all.

(18) He should be so judiciously minded that his teachers, patrons, and pupils have confidence in his ability to look at all sides of the many perplexing problems which constantly confront him.



(19) He should be so willing to assume his full responsibilities that his teachers will never feel that he sidesteps and shifts unnecessary blame and annoyances to them.

(20) He should possess such loyalty to his teachers' work that a high degree of loyalty is given to him and all his plans.

(21) He should possess such real love for children that they will realize his personal interest.

(22) The principal must have efficient habits of work.

These quotations from professional writings are sufficient to indicate at least what some of the desirable personal characteristics of the principal are considered to be. A person ambitious to become a better principal may get from the lists criteria, however inaccurate, of his own personal fitness or unfitness; and he should get suggestions as to changes to be striven for in his own personality, subordinating this characteristic and emphasizing that. After all, a person has to work with the attributes that nature gave him, but he can make the best of them. If he is not naturally enthusiastic or courageous, he can attempt to develop enthusiasm and courage; but pending some modicum of progress, he can use to the best advantage those other characteristics that he does possess, such as fore-sightedness, a willingness to learn, patience, and persistence. He is much more likely to make himself effective by emphasizing in use the good qualities he has in large measure than by an undue effort to develop those in which he is weak.

**The Principal Should Be Professionally Educated.**—Whatever personality a prospective principal has or can acquire, he can profit materially from the proper kind of professional education. In the past probably a majority of principals were elected because they had that undefined thing called "personality," primarily the ability to get on well with people or to impress them with a sort of heavy dignity, or perhaps because they had been successful as teachers. Of course a good personality is an advantage and a principal should have had successful experience as a teacher; but neither in itself qualifies him for performing effectively the duties inherent in the position, and neither enlarges the vision so that the position becomes one of educational leadership. How, then, did those without specific professional training learn their jobs? The first answer is that the majority never did learn them except in the narrow range



of administrative routine. The second answer is that such learning as resulted was at the expense of the pupils. Unwittingly the public forced the youth of the community to pay in a less good education than they should have had for the principal's lack of training. The pupils who were in school during the principal's years of learning had left before he knew how to lead teachers to give the pupils what they had come to get; their opportunity was lost forever. Their injury lay not so much in what they got as in not getting what they should have had a reasonable expectation of getting. Youth should not be required to pay in an irremediable loss of opportunity for the principal's lack of preparation for his job.

The fact that men and women without professional education specifically for the principalship have been accounted successful should not weigh against the argument for such preparation. Some became successful through painful and wasteful trial-and-error on the job, supplemented by persistent and wisely chosen study, either at summer schools or in private. Others became similarly successful in a very narrow field, especially that of running efficiently the machinery of administration. They never developed—indeed, they seldom realized—the possibilities of educational leadership. The curriculum and the course of study remained without significant change or were replaced by those uncritically received from outside sources; the instruction continued to be traditional and without advance in effective economic methods; the teachers grew only as they were stimulated and directed by others; and there developed little unity in progress toward the higher goals. Others were esteemed successful because of low standards. Specific professional education cannot reasonably be deprecated because of these kinds of “success.”

**Requirements.**—There was a time when anybody, regardless of education or of specific training, could qualify for the principalship. But that time has gone forever. First there were requirements of academic degrees and of “successful teaching experience,” though such experience not only did not fully prepare for the principalship but when long continued often actually unfitted a person for it. Today more than half of the states have laws and regulations requiring special certificates for those who aspire to supervise instruction, and the number



will doubtless gradually increase. However, there is little agreement as to what courses should be required. According to Burke,<sup>1</sup> over half of the states making special requirements of principals demand twenty or more hours of professional courses; of 26 states 65.4 per cent require courses in supervision, 50 per cent courses in administration, and 19.3 per cent courses especially in administration of the high school. In addition, the voluntary associations of colleges and secondary schools are lending their powerful influence to increase the requirements for special professional preparation of principals. It will not be long before no person may aspire to a principalship without such training, and even when no legal requirements exist there can be small hope of advancement to more important positions unless preparation has been adequate.

Such requirement for better preparation by principals has had hearty support by the profession, who have been more concerned than the uninformed public to raise the standards. The mere possession of a baccalaureate degree has proved insufficient, as has the passing of general courses in "education." Several studies have revealed that numerous principals have had in their curriculum an inordinate proportion of general professional courses, with a consequent lack of academic training. Coming up through normal schools, where the emphasis was largely on the elementary techniques of teaching, they took their degrees in the same institutions or in others in which they again majored in education. As a result they found themselves in charge of secondary schools without broad enough knowledge either to appreciate or to direct effectively half the teachers whom they were supposed to supervise. Eikenberry reported that in 1922-23 only 18 per cent of the principals of secondary schools had master's degrees; the National Survey of Secondary Education found that the percentage had increased to 42; and Shannon, using the somewhat selected membership of the Department of Secondary School Principals, found a percentage of 51. Gilchrist<sup>2</sup> has reported the inadequacies in training in 77 specific fields of professional study; 13.7 per cent recognized the inadequacy of their training in the

<sup>1</sup> Arvid J. Burke, "Professional Courses for High School Principals," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 20:506-512, October, 1934.

<sup>2</sup> Robert S. Gilchrist, "Inadequacy of Training of Secondary-School Teachers and Principals," *School Review*, 39:140-146, February, 1931.



meaning of education, and 25.3 in the principles of economy of learning.<sup>1</sup>

**The Training Principals Want.**—The training that principals want is admirably presented by C. C. Tillinghast in an article, "What I Should Like to Have Known before I Became a High School Principal,"<sup>2</sup> which could be read with profit by every prospective principal planning his program of professional education. Burke reported the ratings by 190 principals in New York to the professional courses that they had taken; 86.4 per cent rated the courses in supervision as "of most use," 12.5 per cent as "of some use," and 1.1 per cent as "of little use."

In a summer graduate course in education at Columbia University fifteen discussion groups, averaging twelve each, mostly of experienced principals, with a minority ambitious to become principals, proposed the following.

TABLE VIII  
MINIMUM TRAINING FOR A HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

TRAINING	FREQUENCY OF MEN- TION
I. Undergraduate	
A. Bachelor's degree from a recognized college . . . . .	15
B. Suggested courses	
1. Major in some academic subject taught in high school.	6
2. Minor in sociology and education . . . . .	5
3. Educational psychology . . . . .	8
4. Psychology of adolescence . . . . .	4
5. Principles of education . . . . .	6
6. Methods of teaching high school subjects . . . . .	7
7. History of education . . . . .	4
8. Practice teaching . . . . .	4
9. Comparative secondary education . . . . .	1
10. Extra-curricular activities . . . . .	1
11. Guidance . . . . .	1
12. History of secondary education . . . . .	2
13. Tests and measurements . . . . .	2
14. Philosophy of education . . . . .	2
15. Two related minors . . . . .	1
II. Graduate	
1. Supervision of instruction . . . . .	15
2. Organization and administration . . . . .	15

<sup>1</sup> The academic and professional training of principals in superior secondary schools has been reported by M. L. Alstetter in *School Review*, 46:108-117, February, 1938.

<sup>2</sup> *Teachers College Record*, 21:307-318, September, 1920.



TABLE VIII—*Continued*MINIMUM TRAINING FOR A HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL—*Continued*

TRAINING	FREQUENCY OF MEN- TION
3. Educational psychology . . . . .	6
4. Adolescent psychology . . . . .	2
5. Methods of teaching . . . . .	2
6. Secondary school subjects . . . . .	6
7. School law . . . . .	2
8. Philosophy of education . . . . .	9
9. Educational psychology . . . . .	4
10. Measurement and statistics . . . . .	11
11. Curriculum construction . . . . .	11
12. Extra-curricular activities . . . . .	14
13. Guidance . . . . .	8
14. Rating teachers . . . . .	3
15. Teachers meetings . . . . .	1
16. Directing study . . . . .	1
17. Selecting textbooks . . . . .	1
18. Junior high school . . . . .	3
19. Educational experimentation . . . . .	3
20. Comparative secondary education . . . . .	3
21. Integration of departmental work . . . . .	1
22. Character development . . . . .	1

No list of course titles can indicate just what principals want, for the titles seldom indicate either fully or accurately what the courses contain. In the table just presented, at least one group evidently did not think of "teachers meetings" as a topic in a course on supervision. Moreover, principals who have not had certain courses, such as those on guidance, may have little appreciation of their importance. However, these reports may prove helpful to one planning his own preparation, as they represent the judgment of a large number with varied experience.

**The Education a Principal Should Have.**—In the first place, the principal of a secondary school should have had such an academic education as will have developed in him broad and persistent intellectual interests.<sup>1</sup> Such interests are more important than a rich fund of knowledge, which can exist without culture. Interests will lead to a constantly increased amount of knowledge; they are the only cause of persistent intellectual growth. In all probability every individual will develop inter-

<sup>1</sup> See pages 478-534 in Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*. The Macmillan Company, 1933.



ests chiefly in one field or in closely related fields, which is not only natural but also to an extent desirable. But while doing this, the principal who expects to be an appreciative leader in a secondary school cannot afford so to limit his interests that he fails to have some part in a large number of the more important fields of culture. It is too much to expect a principal who is primarily interested in science to be equally interested in history, government, both domestic and international, literature, music, and the arts; but it is not too much to expect that he will range widely enough to be intelligently appreciative and to discover possibilities that may attract him to activity and consequent growth. The emphasis on interests as a part of the liberal education of the principal does not imply that they are primarily for use in his professional leadership, though they may from time to time function there; they are to develop him as an intellectual person sharing richly in the wealth of civilization. Only with such development, which has no terminus in an attained standard, can a principal lead such a rich intellectual life that he can approximate the possibilities of professional leadership of teachers who have, or should have, varying amounts of cultural interests.

The professional education that a principal should have cannot safely be set down with any degree of definiteness in terms of courses or hours. It will best be indicated by an analysis of his job. A mere prescription of so much "graduate study" will inevitably be unsatisfactory; it has in the past frequently led to an assumption that courses in the history of education, psychology, the practices in European countries, and the like inevitably led to professional competence. However valuable they may be as a background for advanced study, they are not the first that the prospective principal needs. Without question he should have an education which leads him to an understanding of the nature of society and of the part that the schools should play in it, of the meaning of education in all its important phases both cultural and utilitarian, of the other educative activities in the community and the desired and possible articulations of the school with them, of the characteristics of youth, of the laws of learning and how they may most effectively and economically be used, of the means of measuring results and using the acquired information, and of other such fundamental



matters. Without such knowledge the principal is not competent to profit either from detailed technical instruction or from study of other practices, which he cannot really understand, properly evaluate, or wisely adopt.

Beyond such fundamentals the principal will need training in the techniques which an analysis of his work indicates as important. He will do well to discriminate between courses that deal with economical routines of performance, however immediately helpful, and those that constantly refer to principles enabling him to meet unanticipated situations and to decide for himself the proper methods of procedure. The time should soon come when principals or prospective principals will constantly challenge their university instructors to justify any topic in terms of its value to the better performance of the job of educational leadership.<sup>1</sup>

**Opportunities for Professional Education.**—The increase in the number of institutions offering professional education is paralleled only by the multiplication of the courses that they offer. It is apparently far easier to add new courses than to drop old ones, some of which persist chiefly because of tradition or because of the vested interest of members of the faculty. In recent years there has been a decided tendency to offer courses specifically to prepare men and women for secondary school principalships. Kefauver in an unpublished study reports that of all institutions giving secondary school "education" 42.3 per cent offered courses on administration, and 16.2 per cent on supervision. And the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Supervision presents <sup>2</sup> an incomplete tabulation of courses offered especially for principals. The number and variety stun the aspirant for professional preparation. Inevitably he has to rely on advice as to the choice of an institution from those who have had experience both in the field and in professional study. He should then test that advice by the demands of his job as he sees it. Having enrolled for study, he should get advice from those competent to give it, both instructors and students, and after critically examining it make his own tentative program, so far as he is permitted to do so. This program should be

<sup>1</sup> For a sensible discussion see D. H. Eikenberry's "The Professional Training of Secondary-School Principals," *School Review*, 38:498-509, September, 1930.

<sup>2</sup> Pages 218-222.



modified in the light of later information about the job, the instructors, and his own peculiar interests and probable competencies.

The secondary school principalship will not become truly professionalized until specific preparation is generally recognized as necessary. It will not be generally recognized until it is justified by improved practice on higher levels by those who have been prepared, and until the success is attributed to the special preparation. At present, secondary school principals, however great their professional training, are not sufficiently active to promote recognition of its necessity with superintendents, boards of education, and the public. It is true that they have had a share, but not the largest share, in effecting requirements for professional training, but it is not the universal practice among applicants for a position to base their case chiefly on the preparation that they have had specifically for the kind of job that is open. It is by no means the universal practice for a principal leaving a position to emphasize the wisdom of selecting a successor who is specifically trained to perform skillfully the duties that it involves. It is not infrequent that a principal who becomes a superintendent will select a successor without regard for his professional preparation, although he would not for a moment think of recommending a kindergartner or an athletic coach who did not have adequate specific preparation. The secondary school principal is still the only person in the school personnel who is expected to learn his job after election at the expense of effectiveness of practice. The principalship will become professionalized only when specific training is justified by results, immediate and increasingly effective by steady growth, and when the necessity is made clear by continuing efforts on the part of all who are responsible to keep the public as well as the administration informed of it.

**The Principal Should Grow Professionally.**—To be successful it is not sufficient for the principal to be prepared; he must also grow continuously as long as he aspires to leadership. Not only does his growth induce growth in others, but new conditions bring new duties. The principal by growth in competence to perform old duties finds time to undertake new ones; as he brings the faculty to levels of proficiency in their accustomed



tasks, he can lead them to higher responsibilities which will stimulate them to continuous effort and greater success. Thorndike has exploded the myth that one becomes too old to learn; as the power of rote memory gradually and slowly declines it is supported by other powers, especially of apperception, that develop from the richness of experience and continuous skilled effort to learn. No principal worthy of his profession should need outside stimulus to make himself grow. While profiting from all stimuli and direction from others, he will activate his ambition by his own self-initiated activities. There need be no fear of breaking under effort, for far fewer people collapse from work than from worry, especially from worry resulting from realization of incompetence and stagnation. Growing people generate energy; the more growth there has been, the easier it will be in the future. Peace of mind from a feeling of competence and a knowledge of steady increase in power is an ideal to be sought by everyone.

The ambitious principal should look about at others who are truly successful and learn how they have grown. Though their ways may not be best for him, they will be at least suggestive. He will have to learn what ways are best for him. He should also look at those who have reached a plateau of contented stagnation and learn why they began to die so young; they will provide evidence of what he should avoid. He should look forward ten years and decide what he wants to be professionally, and from the consequent ideal he can and should make for himself a long-time program for growth. It is his responsibility, and his alone, how steadily he pursues this program, which naturally he will from time to time amend. The young principal who depends long on others to tell him how and when to grow has not advanced far on the path of professional leadership.

Some of the important means that a principal may profitably use for growth are the following:

1. *The principal should clarify his philosophy and his ideals and constantly reflect how they may be applied.* Specific measures he can learn from others, and they may have temporary value. But constantly increasing power and progress toward ever greater effectiveness can come only from habitual reflection in terms of general principles that underlie the constantly elevated ideal.



2. *The principal should develop the will to grow.* Others may bring on him occasional pressure and may give occasional direction and help, but he himself is the only one on whom he can depend for that constant necessary stimulus. If he is sincerely ambitious for professional growth, he avoids doing what others can be got to do reasonably well, he will rid himself of routine duties, and he will avoid being drawn unduly into outside responsibilities which, even though he can perform them with outstanding success, do not contribute to growth in professional competence. He must sedulously refuse to undertake evening school or other similar extra duties that preclude his having time for material growth. He must reserve time for study and for reflection and conscientiously use it for these purposes. He must develop the will to grow so that he is unhappy unless he makes the most serious continuous effort. And, finally, he must be daring to do, to try the practices that his reflections lead him to believe are right.

3. *The principal should analyze his duties and find what he can do best.* Some necessary duties he can delegate to others; some he can learn to do more expeditiously, permitting them to take no more time than absolutely necessary to make performance acceptable; and some he will recognize as offering the greatest possibilities for growth in outstanding competence. Like teachers, every principal should make himself conspicuously notable for doing something better than anybody else in the professional neighborhood. It is by a few outstanding successes that one is known, rather than by doing everything with commonplace satisfaction. Success facilitates success.

4. *The principal should experiment.* He should be courageous to give a trial to what his reflections indicate as better procedures or what others report as unusual and successful, provided it is sound by his philosophy and reasonably promising of success. Trial by teachers is justified, however, only when it is preceded by careful planning, by adequate supervision, and by such measurement of results as is necessary to give evidence of success or of failure. One important reason for the slow progress in education is that these provisions have not been made for "experimenting" with novelties. If there is proved success, the novel practice should be continued. Seldom are the results of experimentation altogether negative. Usually something



worthwhile for continuance can be salvaged from the most extreme cases of failure. But even if the failure is absolute, the effort will have contributed to growth that will make the next venture easier and more promising of success.

5. *The principal should systematically read professional literature.* Publication is so prodigious that no one can expect to "keep up" with all that appears in books and magazines. This means that reading should be selective; every person will have to choose to read intensively in the rather narrow field of his special interests, broadening himself by extensive reading in the more general fields. Unfortunately much reading under the direction of some college professors is bad in its effects, emphasizing as its end merely a correct report of what the author has written. That is not the purpose for which the principal will read to promote his own professional growth. He will read critically, often choosing material with which he expects to disagree. He will test all that he reads by his philosophy and by his experience, being receptively openminded to learn what is meant, but stubborn to yield unless a convincing case is made. He will read with the question "What does this indicate for our work?" constantly in mind. He will spend less time on the printed page and more time in thinking about it, in talking it over with others, and in planning to translate it into the best possible practice. Education prints more and does less about it than any other profession. The principal ambitious to grow professionally will do something about it.

6. *The principal will learn from observing teaching.* As stated at more length later, one important reason for visiting classes, not only in the school for which he is responsible but in others as well, is to accumulate a store of illustrations of good practices. The principal who visits only to rate and to help teachers is missing a great opportunity for his own growth. He should be constantly alert to see, to remember, and to reflect on unusual practices, whatever they may be, in order that he may grow in competence to understand and to devise more richly a better program of progress.

7. *The principal should learn from business, industry, and other types of schools.* The tendency of principals is to confine their observations and study to the type of schools in which they work. But there is teaching, often highly skilled teaching,



performed in many other places. He can often learn much from the supervisor of telephone operators, the head of a group of clerks in a department store, the foreman in a shop, or instructors at the local dance hall, golf course, or private "business college." They have to teach successfully or they fail to hold their students or to get new ones. Often the best teaching in a school is by the athletic coach. The principal ambitious to grow on his job will not despise opportunities to learn from such people how effective teaching is done, nor will he be too proud to adopt or to adapt their best methods.

8. *The principal should discuss his problems with others.* No argument is needed to support the assumption that a principal can profit from the points of view, the criticism, and the suggestions of others. He is very likely to seek such help from his professional superiors and even from his colleagues. But he needs more than this; he needs the challenge of new points of view, the stimulus of hostile opposition. And this he can get by laying his problems before representative laymen, some in the humbler walks of life as well as those in the professions, explaining fully the situation without concealing the essential facts, and considering with open mind what they have to say. Of course by such procedure the principal can do much to educate the public into understanding, sympathy, and support. But the purpose here emphasized is to get new points of view, criticism, and novel suggestions. The principal should be more eager to understand others than to correct them; and after understanding he will need to spend long hours in evaluating what he has heard and in profiting by what can be translated into a program for his own growth. Common sense about the solution of educational problems is not confined to schoolmen.

9. *The principal should confer frequently with teachers about his own problems.* This means of growth is merely a subdivision of the preceding one. The problems of a principal are not altogether unknown, at least in part, by the teachers. By laying them one at a time before the staff, in group meeting or individually, the principal insures that they are understood, gets information that increases his own understanding, improves the morale of the staff, and is likely to receive suggestions of value in his attempts to devise solutions. While the teachers are often able to give good advice by reason of their professional



training and experience, the principal should recognize that they usually have much the same point of view as he and frequently to a large extent they reflect his own opinions.

10. *The principal should actively participate in small professional discussion groups.* In all parts of the country there are numerous small voluntary groups of principals who meet from time to time, usually once a month at dinner, for informal discussion of problems of common interest. If such a group is not available, the principal ambitious to grow will usually have little difficulty in finding within driving distance others with similar aspirations and needs. The groups that have proved most successful usually number from a half-dozen to twenty-five; they make their own programs and frankly discuss their problems, each member freely making his own contributions and profiting by those of his fellows. Sometimes the group observe the classes of a school and then discuss what they have seen. Sometimes they combine to make simple studies or experiments, and sometimes they attempt to translate general theory, especially as presented in national reports, into a practical program for action. Such groups offer a wonderful opportunity for professional growth by all members and for leadership by the more competent. From them one can often learn much of great value for the improvement of teachers meeting in a school.

11. *The principal should attend professional conventions.* There is a technique of attending conventions which is mastered and used by few. It is not sufficient merely to pay dues, to wear a badge, to greet old friends and to make new ones, to swap stories in the lobby, or even to occupy a seat during the proceedings. There is an art of listening critically though with open mind, of taking notes, of reflecting on what is said, and of translating what is approved into a program for practice, immediately or later. If the programs are not helpful, there is an obligation to use such influence as one has to make them so. There is much possible help from discussing with other delegates of similar interests what has been heard, not briefly expressing an opinion but considering at length the proposals and the arguments of the speakers and evaluating them in terms of local conditions. Such extended discussions by small groups are highly profitable. There is much possible stimulus to growth also from exchanging experiences with other principals, espe-



cially such experiences as are pertinent to the general theories presented at the meetings, and from visiting unusual features in schools in or near the city where the convention is held.

12. *The principal should reflect on his own supervisory practices.* The habit of sitting down a few minutes every day and calmly reflecting on what one has attempted, analyzing every effort and evaluating the mistakes as well as the successes, is highly recommended. Almost everyone gives to his activities a few casual thoughts of evaluation, but that is very different from the deliberate and unhurried analysis which enables one most assuredly to plan how he can do his work better in the future. Especially for active administrators this is difficult; they do not like to spare the time from "doing something." But reflection on what one has done is the best preparation for what one wishes to do better. The growing principal should make a habit of systematically putting himself and his program to proof as objectively as if he were an omniscient and impartial observer.

13. *The principal should periodically study in summer schools.* The foregoing suggestions for growth lack the stimulus of systematic study with others of similar interests and responsibilities and also lack the guidance of instructors with unusual competence in needed fields. It is not always easy for the head of a school, especially after years of successful leadership, to submit himself to the disciplines demanded of a student. But one significant contribution results: it gives him again, as nothing else can do, sympathetic understanding of the pupils in the school which he directs and of the teachers whom he has taught in group meetings and conferences. If the summer courses have been well selected, they should also contribute much help for growth from the broader principles of education and the applications made by the instructor from his inventiveness or from his store accumulated from observation, reading, and the experiences of former students. If the instructor can find time for personal conferences on the principal's problems, he brings a new point of view, usually related to fundamental theory, and often much practical help of an immediate nature. But all of his suggestions the principal should put to proof as if they had no official sanction whatever. The principal will profit greatly from using the opportunity afforded by summer schools of



learning from his fellow students, many of whom are widely experienced and highly successful, everyone in something. Summer courses taken without the compulsion of degree requirements are likely to be the most profitable of all.

14. *The principal should write for professional journals.* One great value of setting down one's ideas on paper is that it forces clarification and organization of thought as few other stimuli do. The principal who is ambitious to grow will find it of great value himself to write under the motivation of publication complete expositions of his best practices, justifying them with simply stated theory and clarifying them with concrete illustrations. These he can submit to the most suitable of the many professional journals, national or local, or to the newspapers of his community. He owes such contributions to the profession and to others who are seeking to grow, and they supply a perfectly proper advertisement of his own competence. But the point emphasized here is that writing is a potent help to growth; it motivates, it clarifies, it forces organization, it puts to the proof what is being done, and it often receives helpful criticism. The principal who feels that he has small ability in self-expression on paper should especially accept this challenge. He will profit from it whether or not his first attempts result in publication.

15. *The principal should popularize his achievements.* Many a principal who is unusually effective in some phase of his work is reluctant to make it widely known lest he be criticized for self-advertising. However, for several reasons he should make known his successful efforts. In the first place, he owes to the public a report on its investment in money and in children. The public is interested in what is being accomplished, and it will be proud of anything unusual. He should achieve and advertise, not himself but professional successes, in order that he may be permitted to achieve. Every success known to others results in more confidence that the general program is sound and in more hospitality to future unusual efforts. The principal owes to the profession reports from which others may profit. The local members of the profession are just as important as those farther afield. It should not be necessary to caution against advertising of self, which frequently leads to disastrous attitudes. The emphasis is on popularizing knowledge of



successful practices in order that others may more easily follow.

16. *The principal should occasionally rate himself on a rating card.* There are a number of rating schemes prepared for principals,<sup>1</sup> but apparently they have not had wide use. The total score of items is of negligible value, for unusually strong or unusually weak characteristics weigh far more in a total estimate than the values ever assigned them. But a principal will find it profitable periodically to rate himself for the purpose of evaluating his own personal and professional equipment and his practices. By doing so he will have brought to his mind matters that he may have overlooked and he will profit from considering the estimation of values set by others. He should not be unduly influenced, however, by the relative values assigned; his own ideas may be better. Every principal would do well to prepare, using what has been published, his own rating-card, and then to use that card periodically for checking on his own growth and for preparing a program to strengthen both his good and his weak practices.

17. *The principal should occasionally have the teachers rate him as a supervisor.* The practice of the principal's rating teachers is common; the practice of teachers rating a principal is not. However, if the principal sincerely wishes to learn what the teachers think of his various activities in supervision in order that he may know where he especially needs to grow in effectiveness, this has its possibilities. That it may have its dangers too is obvious. So has the principal's rating of teachers. The principal who asks to be rated must steel himself against hostile criticisms as well as against lack of appreciation; and he will not bask complacently in the sunshine of approval. He must make clear to the teachers the purpose of asking them for a rating, and he would do well to work out with them a scheme of items on which anonymous ratings are sought. The principal who is eager to grow on his job of supervision will not be inter-

<sup>1</sup> Illustrative are the following:

E. W. Jacobsen, "The Faculty Helps the Principal," *American School Board Journal*, 81:47, October, 1930. Reprinted in "The Principal at Work on His Problems," *National Education Association Research Bulletin*, March, 1931.

Paul R. Spencer, "A High School Principal's Self-Rating Card," *School Review*, 30:268-273, March, 1922.

"A Check-List for Self-Analysis," *The Evaluation of Supervision*, pp. 101-107. Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, 1931.



ested to identify the author of any rating, but he will give himself a thorough self-examination to ascertain judicially the causes of implied criticisms, favorable as well as derogatory, and he will set himself to make the former more justifiable and the latter impossible.

18. *The principal will from time to time assume new responsibilities.* The easiest procedure is to continue doing acceptably what he has learned to do well. That does not lead to growth. Growth results from accepting new responsibilities or from enlarging old ones. When one scheme for supervision has proved successful, it will be continued and promising new ones will be tried. That they may be difficult is a good reason for trying them, for it is by overcoming difficulties that growth is made necessary and is most likely to result. There are thousands of people who have stopped growing because they are too cautious and timid to undertake anything new; in a few years a habit is fixed and these people count less and less, both personally and professionally. Some new responsibilities or the possibility of extending old responsibilities are offered by outsiders, official superiors or others, but the more important ones the ambitious principal must be alert to discover for himself. Although the undertaking of responsibilities outside his field, like leading a drive for membership in the Red Cross, is often helpful in demanding the exercise of latent talents, the principal should be on his guard not to let such tasks unduly interfere with his professional growth. He will find abundant opportunities for new responsibilities in the field of improving instruction.

19. *The principal when young should make changes in position.* Changing from one locality to another is one of the disadvantages of the profession of education. Everyone likes to settle down in a congenial position, to make friends, and to become a part of the community; but more than any other profession education often requires a person to move to another community in order to secure the promotion that he has earned. This moving has its advantages, too, especially when one is young. It furnishes the challenges just set forth as conducive to growth; it enables one to leave the memory of mistakes; it offers opportunities to apply what he has learned by previous experience; and it enables him to profit from another set of observed superior practices. The principal ambitious to



grow in professional competence can sometimes afford in the early years to move to another position with no increase in salary chiefly for the effect that it will have on his growth.

20. *The principal will continue to grow culturally.* While the principal is a professional official, he is also an individual with his own cultural life to lead and enjoy. He should not permit his professional obligations to thwart that; and in order to enjoy his cultural life most fully, he must constantly increase his resources. The more full his cultural life, the more effective he can become professionally; it not only furnishes a relief from the steady tension of official duties, but it enables him as a person growing in cultural wealth to understand better the teachers with whom he works and the educational purposes that they seek to achieve with their students. Every principal should ride a cultural hobby, and he should constantly add new horses to his stable.

*A professional spirit on the part of a supervisor will encourage a similar spirit on the part of those supervised*—In the last analysis, the creative work of the supervisor will be measured by his devotion to the cause of education, expressed through productive scholarship and leadership. If his loyalty to this service controls his own activities, it will be found in the lives of those with whom he is associated. If he has given himself willingly and wholeheartedly to a study of the meaning of education in our society; if he is thoroughly conversant with the contributions of science to our profession, then he may ask for a like consecration upon the part of his colleagues. Great leadership is dependent upon social intelligence, professional scholarship, professional insight, and professional imagination. These are granted only to those who value the cause they serve above everything else. The supervisor may hope to provoke in the lives and the work of his colleagues no greater understanding or enthusiasm or idealism than that which controls his own. Just as the teacher should have a technic of teaching—so the supervisor should have a technic of supervision.<sup>1</sup>

### **The Major Responsibility of the Principal.—**

*The duties of a principal.* The number of duties actually performed by or expected of secondary school principals is so large that a mere inspection of the list fills a prospective principal

<sup>1</sup> The source of this quotation has unfortunately been forgotten.



with dismay. Ayer has reported <sup>1</sup> in a series of articles 1000 duties of which 136 high school principals performed 394, 42 relating to instruction and 29 to the curriculum. Sanguinet in an unpublished study lists 513 duties under twenty classifications. Among these more than five hundred duties, about 18.5 per cent can be called supervisory. The rules and regulations of 95 cities specify 897 functions of elementary school principals, 62 per cent of which are administrative in nature.<sup>2</sup> Fortunately not all of these duties need to be performed every day, some of them demanding attention only once or twice a year; many of them are delegated, requiring only that the principal see that they are done; and some of them are trivial and incidental. However, the list of actual professional duties which demand continual attention is still so long that it is necessary for a principal to clarify his mind as to relative values.

*Distribution of principals' time.* There have been published numerous studies of how principals actually spend their time, which averages something over seven hours a day at the school. From two ambitious studies of the distribution of time by secondary school principals the following summaries are taken. Davis <sup>3</sup> reports that the typical principal spends daily:

- 40 minutes inspecting the building
- 90 minutes teaching
- 40-60 minutes supervising (14.3 per cent made no pretense of doing supervision, and 2.31 per cent devote less than 31 minutes to it)
- 30 minutes conferring with teachers (3.5 per cent confessed that they held no such conferences)
- 30 minutes interviewing pupils
- 30 minutes talking with callers
- 30 minutes attending to student collateral activities
- 40 minutes in charge of session rooms
- 60 minutes in routine office work
- 30 minutes attending to civic and out-of-school professional matters

<sup>1</sup> Fred C. Ayer, "The Duties of Public School Administrators," *American School Board Journal*, February, 1929, to February, 1930, inclusive, with the exception of November.

<sup>2</sup> Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, pp. 215-227.

<sup>3</sup> C. O. Davis, "Duties of High School Principals." Part I of the 26th Yearbook of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1921, pp. 49-69. The whole report, which gives the responses of principals to about 100 questions, may profitably be studied.



Billett reports <sup>1</sup> that principals in schools selected for their reputation of having superior supervisory programs distributed their time as follows:

- 22.9 per cent to administrative duties
- 11.1 per cent to clerical duties
- 7.3 per cent to public relations
- 3.8 per cent to research
- 15.2 per cent to supervision
- 36.5 per cent to teaching
- 6.3 per cent to guidance
- 3.0 per cent to other activities

Median percentages for all schools, small and large, rural and urban, are given. The percentage of time devoted to supervision ranged from 10.3 in rural high schools to 26.6 in all city high schools combined. If teaching is omitted, the percentage of time devoted to supervision in rural high schools rises to 19.0.

Other studies report varying distributions of time; in one the percentage devoted to supervision is as high as 42, in others it falls much lower. On the whole, study of the activities of elementary school principals shows a larger amount of time devoted by them to supervision, despite the fact that their teachers have had a larger amount of technical training. Garretson says of the principals in the state that he studied, "With the exception of rare inspectional visits, the teachers in more than one-third of the high schools replying to this inquiry receive from their principals no aid or suggestions for the improvement of classroom procedures that are based on first-hand knowledge of their difficulties, and instances of the relinquishment of the principal's supervisory duties to another are found even in the larger high schools."

*The ideal distribution.* These data, which might be supplemented from other studies, are not intended to indicate the proportion of a principal's time that should be devoted to the improvement of instruction. Concealed in reports of all such studies is a tremendous variation in the conception of supervision and in the effectiveness with which it is attempted. The data do not tell, either, the great ranges in the distribution of time to a single activity; an average of 26 may be derived from

<sup>1</sup> *Bulletin No. 17*, 1932, Monograph 11, p. 117, of the National Survey of Secondary Education.



zero and 52. But on the face of the returns there is evidence that supervision gets much less time than its importance warrants.

What the ideal distribution of a principal's time and energies should be no one can say with certainty, but there have been numerous attempts to pool judgments. The principals who reported to Eikenberry in 1924 ranked supervision first and supervisory conferences second in importance among their official duties. The National Education Association Research Bulletin *The Principal as a Supervisor* says that "on the basis of research" teaching principals should devote to supervision 35 per cent of their time and supervising principals 50 per cent; and the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, using data from five studies, puts the ideal for supervision by elementary school principals at 41 per cent. Several hundred graduate students who had taken a course in supervision agreed that its importance warrants a secondary school principal's devoting 60 per cent of his energies to the improvement of instruction.

It is evident that the ideal as expressed by those who have given study to the matter is far higher than the practice of those who have the responsibility for doing the job. Whether the deficiency is due to one cause or another, it exists and challenges efforts at improvement. It can readily be understood that emergencies of one kind and another will make it impossible for principals to approximate the ideal every day, and the emergency may continue for some time, perhaps from no fault of the principal. But convincing reasons have been given earlier for the need of supervision and means have been suggested for carrying out a comprehensive program. There is not likely to be a great change in emphasis until principals appreciate the prime objective of the school and their major responsibility for its achievement. There is much evidence that they do not have—at least, that they do not keep in mind—this objective and this responsibility at the present time. When 285 principals listed the difficulties that they had experienced in their jobs, 60 per cent were found to be administrative, 17 per cent concerned with the social life of the school, and only 23 per cent supervisory. These figures do not indicate that administration is more difficult than supervision—quite the contrary. One



does not have difficulties with something he has not tried.

*A school is organized that it may be administered; it is administered that it may be instructed.* Neither organization nor administration has any value in itself; indeed, they have no meaning apart from facilitating instruction. Yet our professional literature is full of discussions and reports of studies of how schools should be organized and of how they should be administered with no reference to the educational objectives or to the direct means for attaining them. The junior high school movement, to give one notable illustration, failed to attain anything like its possibilities because the preparation for it was concerned more with the distribution of grades in a building, the classification and salary of teachers to be used, and the records to be kept than with the experiences proper for boys and girls in the intermediate period of their education. There was an assumption in too many administrative quarters that the educational program would take care of itself. We have developed school administration to a high and laudable plane of excellence; it will not suffer by comparison with administration in business or industry, and it is far superior to administration in most professional offices and homes. But what value is there in skilled administration unless the educational program is worthwhile? It is high time that the whole profession, superintendents and teachers as well as principals, recognized that the major responsibility of the principal is to lead teachers to the steady, continuous, and progressive improvement of the curriculum and of the techniques of teaching that enable youth most assuredly and most economically to profit from it.

### EXERCISES

1. Study the leadership used in some local industry or non-school training and report what you learn from it.

2. Discuss "Leadership is meaningless unless it has direction." What goals have you that chiefly will determine the leadership you aspire to give?

3. How has the "our attitude" been developed in schools that you know? How do you think you can develop it?

4. List the personality traits that you think are most essential in a principal who aspires to professional leadership. Rate yourself by the list. Which ones do you need to strengthen? Which strong ones can you so emphasize by use that the weaker ones will be least harmful?



5. Which desirable personality traits are improvable? How?
6. What do you think are the most frequent causes of unhappiness in teachers? How could you remove or lessen each cause? How could you develop fortitude and a professional spirit in the face of irremediable causes of unhappiness?
7. Carefully review your own education, cultural as well as professional, and plan for what growth you hope to get by any and every means in the future.
8. If you could outline in detail the professional training that you think you need, what in general would it be? How can you proceed to approximate your desires in courses that you elect?
9. What plans can you make for reasonable growth in culture?
10. What means other than courses for professional growth seem most promising for you?
11. Outline in full detail the best procedures for reading professional literature. You will need first to decide on the purposes of such reading and then greatly expand the usual meaning of the term.
12. Observe the teaching by an athletic coach, a golf professional, or an instructor in a private vocational school and critically consider his methods and his results.
13. Discuss some educational problem with several men and women who are not and never have been teachers. What can you learn from the experience?
14. Prepare a plan that you might use to induce other principals to join a small informal discussion group.
15. Prepare a detailed plan for getting the greatest profit from attending an educational convention. Use it and consider the results.
16. What reasonable recommendations can you make for improving the effectiveness of summer school courses for principals?
17. How can a principal popularize the successes of a school and escape the criticism of self-advertising?
18. Using rating cards for principals that you can find, prepare one which you are willing to use in rating yourself as a supervisor of instruction. Why not publish it?
19. What new professional responsibilities have you recently undertaken? What were the results? What further ones do you hope to undertake and how can you plan so as to avoid any bad effects previously experienced?
20. Set down in some detail what you would like to be able to do most efficiently as a supervisor ten years from now. How do you plan to grow toward this efficiency? File the statement and make a memorandum to evaluate yourself once a year by it.



## CHAPTER VI

---

### THE PRINCIPAL'S RELATIONS WITH OTHERS

---

In his position a principal will have official relations with many other people. Above him are the superintendent, or his representatives, responsible to the Board of Education; coördinate with him there are principals of lower and higher schools, and there may be special supervisors; under his direction are teachers, clerks, and other employees; there are all the parents of pupils in the school; and last there is the general public. Although this book is concerned with the principal as a supervisor of instruction, something must be said here about his relations with others, especially as they affect or may affect his work in this particular field. Inasmuch as the principal's responsibilities and functions vary greatly, as has already been pointed out, only generalizations that seem sound in any situation will be presented.

**I. Relations with the Board of Education.**—If the Board of Education properly conceives of its duties, which is not always the case, it is a legislative and judicial body. It will elect a competent professional superintendent and, after approving the general policies that he presents, leave to him the responsibility for carrying them out, directly or through the professional staff. It will also hold him responsible for the success of his program. Under such a conception, the principal of a school should have no direct contact with the Board of Education, nor should he seek to have any. By invitation, which is a polite way of saying by the direction, of the superintendent he may appear before the Board to explain, justify, or advocate some procedure. If he should appear before the Board on his own initiative, it is a breach of professional ethics, which will often lead to a clash with the superintendent resulting in the elimination of himself or of his superior officer.

Boards of Education frequently fail to understand that they should not undertake the direction of the technical details of



education. It is the superintendent's obligation to educate the members, especially as new ones are inducted into office, as to what their responsibilities are, and to take a firm professional stand that will protect principals and teachers alike from interference in technical matters. It is well that the duties of the principal shall be defined in only a general way; long and specific "rules and regulations" are not only unnecessary but are also often positively restrictive and harmful. It is much wiser that the principal's responsibilities be agreed on with the superintendent or assumed by the common consent of common sense. Naturally they will vary with the peculiar competence of the principal. It is not often that Boards of Education attempt officially to interfere with a principal, especially in respect to what is taught and the methods of instruction, but individual members not infrequently do undertake to exercise influence on such matters. As individuals they of course have no official status and certainly cannot issue orders. They should be listened to as any other citizens, and they should be given explanations and justifications of what is being attempted and planned, but they should not be allowed to exercise private influence that is not justified by reasons compelling to the responsible principal. After any important interview with any member of the Board of Education the principal should report to the superintendent what has been said; the latter will need the information to promote wisely the general program of education.

Without specific direction or approval by the superintendent the principal should not attempt to carry on with individual members of the Board of Education a campaign to secure their support of such policies as he may wish them to approve. As a matter of policy many experienced administrators have found it wise not to talk over with individual members any important matter before presenting it to the Board as a whole. For this position there are two cogent reasons: in the first place, if an individual member is not convinced in the personal conference, he is likely to resent the pushing of the proposal before the whole Board and to be in implacable opposition; and in the second place, those who have not been previously consulted may develop an unnecessary hostility because of the slight. The superintendent should be the official representative of the school system before the Board of Education.



Respecting this principle, the head of a single school should popularize it with the teachers. He should discourage them from going directly to members of the Board to promote the interests either of themselves or of the school, making clear that the ethics of the profession require that they work through the principal and through the superintendent. This principle is sometimes difficult to establish when teachers have easy access to Board members either because of long acquaintance or because of other relations. But its maintenance not only protects the members of the Board, but also in the long run does most to promote the professional status. The principal should have an important part in nominating teachers for election and for promotion, his nominations going to the Board through the superintendent; and similarly he should not shirk the unpleasant responsibility for recommending transfers and discharges. The selection and the retention of able teachers is an important part of the program of supervision.

**II. Relations with the Superintendent.**—The superintendent of schools is the leader and director of all the formal educational activities of a community and he is responsible directly to the Board of Education. His leadership is ultimately to improve the instruction by the teachers and thereby the learning and growth of the pupils, but the demands of the office are such that he frequently becomes so immersed in the problems of organization, administration, and public relations that his concern with education itself is, or at least seems to be, occasional and remote. Strayer and Engelhardt say,<sup>1</sup> "Superintendents have turned supervision over to principals and special supervisors without offering proper leadership, providing proper plans of operation, or making checks upon subsequent supervisory results. As a consequence, progress in the development of expert supervision . . . has lagged far behind the comparable progress which has been made in such phases of school administration as child accounting, financial management, the building program, and school board organization."

The superintendent in every community, small or large, should accept as his first responsibility the development of an educational program soundly based on a sensible philosophy

<sup>1</sup> *The Classroom Teacher at Work in American Schools*, p. 45. American Book Company, 1920.



and sufficiently comprehensive to include all the educational opportunities for every child. As argued more at length elsewhere, he should develop this program in coöperation with all the principals and through them of all the teachers, primarily because of the help that he will get, and secondarily because of the necessity that the whole staff should not only understand the program but also give to it faith and loyalty. This position holds that it is both uneconomical and ineffective to expect the principals "to sense the superintendent's policy," as has been stated by one prominent author, and that he is quite wrong in his contention that "It is primarily the function of the superintendent to think, to plan, and to lead; it is primarily the function of the principal to execute plans and to follow and support," and that "The full philosophy of the game all do not need to know—that may be left largely to the leaders or directors."

The superintendent becomes effective in proportion as he secures the intelligent loyalty of the whole staff to a coöperatively developed educational program, as he selects capable assistants promising of growth, as he trains them for effectively promoting the program, as he gives them responsibility, and as he holds them responsible for results. This takes time; indeed, the task is never done. An administrator is judged not by what he does but by what he gets others to do. The most important assistant that the superintendent has for improving education in a school is the principal, who knows the local community, the teachers, and the pupils, and who is constantly on the job. If he is not competent to improve instruction skillfully and continually and cannot be led to develop competency, he should be replaced. If he cannot be removed, then the appointment of a special supervisor of instruction is justified. The superintendent who is conscientiously concerned with increasing educational effectiveness will see that the principal has the necessary time for supervision, he will furnish him stimulus, direction, and help, and he will expect results.

The type of organization that is in effect will of course somewhat condition at first the responsibility entrusted to the principal, as will the personalities of all who are employed for supervision. But there can be little argument against the ideal that the principal shall have the prime responsibility for improving



education in a single school, always in consonance with the general program, and that all supervisors acting as his technical advisers shall work through him. This is the ideal that the professional principal should hold constantly in mind and toward which he should work, convincing a superintendent who may think otherwise by effective assumption of as many activities as possible moving in that direction. "To the full extent that building principals are qualified," says the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence,<sup>1</sup> "they should be placed in entire charge of the instructional plan within their respective buildings. The principal should be responsible for operating the course of study, for supervising all activities within his building, for carrying out the superintendent's policies, and for providing teachers with stimulating professional leadership."

In case no comprehensive educational program exists for the community, the principal has a responsibility to develop one for the school in which he works, involving the teachers and, so far as possible, the superintendent. The general outline of the program should be approved by his superior officer. When there is disagreement, the decision of the superintendent must tentatively be accepted, and the principal should work with full loyalty to carry out the program as modified, reserving the right to continue his efforts to get his own ideal approved later.

The wise superintendent will give to the principal great freedom within the limits of the approved general program. He will hold frequent conferences to develop plans, to consider those proposed by the principal, and to offer such stimulus, direction, encouragement, and help as he can. He will make himself easily available, and by hospitality and helpfulness he will enable the principal to seek his advice without embarrassment. Some have advocated that the superintendent should draw up a detailed list of the duties that he expects the principal to perform, strictly delimiting them from others assigned to supervisors. In certain circumstances this may be wise; but as a rule it is much more satisfactory to have an understanding of the general responsibilities and leave to common sense minor adjustments. C. O. Davis in 1921 reported that in slightly more than half the communities responding to his

<sup>1</sup> Page 45.



study the border-line duties between the superintendent and the principal had been carefully defined. On occasion the superintendent may have to decide stubborn conflicts.

The more freedom the superintendent permits, the more careful he must be to check on progress toward desired results. His attitude should, however, be that of a partner who wishes to learn of the success of a joint venture, rather than that of an impersonal measurer. He is interested in results that he may learn how better and greater ones can be assured. The best basis for judgment of results will be the frequent conferences with the principal, though he can learn much by observation of classes, attendance at teachers meetings, and conversations with teachers, whom he will encourage to tell of their work and their plans but not to give critical complaints. The superintendent must be loyal to the principal. Loyalty begets loyalty. He may occasionally use objective measures, when suitable ones can be found, and periodically he should require formal written reports of what has been planned, what attempted, estimates of success, and statements of needs, the satisfaction of which will facilitate the program. Such reports are valuable for the principal in that they force him to a clarification of his own mind, to a definite judgment of achievements, and to planning for the future. The principal should make such a report at least annually whether it is required or not.

While seeking and accepting a large amount of freedom in the responsibility that he has for the improvement of instruction, the principal will never forget the obligations that he owes the superintendent, the responsible head of the schools and his superior officer. The principal must be loyal and conscientious in carrying out not only orders but also policies, even though he may not approve them all in detail. He must be willing that credit for accomplishment be taken by the superintendent, as he is ready to give it to the teachers. He should be prompt in performing duties, especially those that involve others outside the school; a delayed report requested by the central office may make impossible the completion of work there considered important. He should manifest respect for his superior officer and give him constant courtesy and coöperation. Under almost any circumstances the principal will have



more freedom than he can exhaust to promote educational improvement in the school of which he has charge.

**III. Relations with the Supervisors.**—The ideal organization has been stated as providing that the principal is the supreme authority in a school, responsible directly to the superintendent. It follows, then, that all special supervisors sent to the building should be technical advisers of the principal and that they should perform such services for the teachers as the principal approves. Such an ideal for several reasons does not determine the most common practice. Though extending through great variations, practice frequently furnishes for the high schools special supervisors of music, art, home economics, industrial arts, commercial work, agriculture, and other such newer subjects in the curriculum, and less frequently special supervisors of such older subjects as English, the social sciences, and mathematics. Sometimes the special supervisors work through all of the grades, from the elementary into the high school. But the trend seems to be toward a recognition of the principal as the officer responsible for the entire supervisory program in the single school. "The main developments in the relation of principal and special supervisor after 1918," writes Pierce,<sup>1</sup> "may be summarized as (1) the improvement of the techniques of coöperation between principal and special supervisor during the latter's visit to schools, (2) the recognition of the fact that the principal should supervise the work in the special subjects, with the special teacher acting as the technical expert, and (3) the policy of holding the principal responsible for the effective use of the special teachers as expert advisers in supervision." If the principal is ignored or superseded in authority by sending into the school a supervisor not responsible to him, his effectiveness is impaired and his professional growth hampered.

*When supervisors are responsible to the superintendent.* Under an organization that provides for special supervisors responsible only to the superintendent, the principal should coöperate to the full extent of his powers. He should encourage hospitality on the part of teachers and maintain morale, rearrange schedules so far as possible, facilitate the holding of group meetings

<sup>1</sup> Paul R. Pierce, *The Origin and Development of the Public School Principalship*, p. 121. University of Chicago Press, 1935.



and individual conferences, furnish supplies, give information as to needed help, promising ventures, and peculiar characteristics of both teachers and pupils, report reactions of teachers to the supervisor's previous efforts, and follow up suggestions made to the teachers and to him. In doing all these things he becomes an administrative and supervisory assistant to the representative of the superintendent. But the professional principal will not be content with that subordinate function. He will learn from the special supervisor so that he is able to take over some of the work of supervision with effectiveness, he will endeavor to exert influence that will lead to a coördination of the special work with the program for the entire school, and he will endeavor to manifest such need for a coördinated plan of supervision that inevitably his responsibility will be increased.

*The principal and the special supervisor.* In any type of organization the principal should endeavor to lead the special supervisor to an understanding of the general educational program that has been developed by the school. By the nature of his selection the special supervisor tends to have a narrower view of education as a whole process and to over-emphasize the field of his specialty. Although enthusiasm is a valuable asset, it should be directed into an enthusiasm for the possible contribution of the specialty to the whole development of youth. For the education of the special supervisor in this respect the principal should assume responsibility, as well as for making known the special functions of the school. On the other hand, the principal can often learn much from the special supervisor about the educative values of the subject of emphasis and about the work of the lower contributing school. This will enable him to help other teachers, especially those of "regular subjects," to gain an appreciation of the newer elements of the curriculum, and to correlate their work for greater effectiveness.

The principal should plan with the special supervisor his general program and to him from time to time the latter should report proposed amendments, progress, and difficulties, which together they can attempt to overcome. The wise principal will not often make an assertion of his authority, but he will endeavor to reach an understanding of the common objectives toward which the special supervisor will work by means of the



subject in which he is expert. In the secondary school, conflicts are likely to be as rare as Kyte found them in elementary schools. He reports: "Out of 652 possible cases of conflict reported by 57 principals replying from different cities, only 38 recognized conflicts were indicated. Twenty-five special supervisors reported only 6 recognized conflicts out of 211 possibilities. These and other data in Crandell's study supported his conclusion that 'there were few recognized conflicts as compared with recognized dual or multiple responsibilities.' " Personalities and professional competence are more important than organization.

*The principal as an intermediary.* The principal is likely to know better than the special supervisor the teachers, the pupils, and the peculiar characteristics of the neighborhood. He will therefore from time to time pass on such pertinent information as the special supervisor needs. He will indicate the kinds of help that individual teachers need and the means which he has found most effective in making them receptive to what is offered. The special supervisor is likely to be grateful for all such information that will facilitate his effectiveness. The principal will also on occasion need to protect the teachers from inordinate demands on their time and energy, demands that emanate from the supervisor's enthusiasm and failure to see steadily the whole program of the school and of individual teachers. On account of some unusual extra-curricular load a teacher who is entirely coöperative in spirit may be unable at the time to undertake some special assignment that the special supervisor insists on as of urgent importance.

*Teamwork.* The principal and the special supervisor will continuously learn each from the other. The thing desired is that they become an effective team. At every visit to the school the special supervisor should have a conference with the principal, long or brief as the occasion demands and permits; and the principal can profit greatly from accompanying the special supervisor on some visits for observation and from sitting in at least a part of the subsequent conferences. The principal will learn constantly from such experiences how to make his own supervision more profitable, and he can make suggestions out of the richness of his own experience, his wider vision, and his more intimate knowledge of the school that cannot fail to be



helpful to the occasional visitor. Each should be careful to express appreciation and approval of the other's work.

The special supervisor will hold conferences with teachers on matters within the field of his specialty, but on all other matters, even those concerned with general method, he should report his suggestions to the principal, who will consider the extent to which he can use them effectively at the time or later in his own program of supervision. Not infrequently the principal will recognize the weakness or special promise that is reported in a teacher, but will decide that the time is not propitious for taking it up. Of course he will be eager to consider fairly all suggestions that the special supervisor, who has another point of view and a different background, can make.

The special supervisor is obligated to use the same good techniques and the same good manners as the principal in observing classes. These will be discussed in a later chapter. But because of his unusual competence, he may properly participate more freely in the recitations and more frequently take over the class for demonstration teaching. The frequency with which he does this should depend on the need and the readiness for help of the teacher observed. In addition to giving help when observation shows its need, the special supervisor should be available in the building at convenient hours to teachers who wish to bring to him the problems of which they are conscious. These problems may call for corrective or for promotional help; the ones more important in the long run are those that challenge the development of a long-term constructive program based on fundamental principles of education. When a teacher wishes a special conference outside the hours regularly set aside for help, it should be arranged for by the principal.

*Beatley's proposals.* After viewing with alarm what he considers undesirable conflicts between the principal and special supervisors, especially in the theory advocated by those promoting diverse interests in education, Beatley presents <sup>1</sup> the following chart, which may profitably be studied:

<sup>1</sup> Bancroft Beatley, "The Battle of the Specialists in Secondary Education," *Bulletin No. 20*, National Association of Secondary School Principals, pp. 72-79. Also in *School Review*, 36:496-503, September, 1928.



## FUNCTIONS OF PRINCIPALS AND SPECIALISTS IN THE SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

(This suggestion assumes that principal and specialist are to be coördinate in rank in the school system)

PRINCIPAL'S RESPONSIBILITY	JOINT RESPONSIBILITY	SPECIALIST'S RESPONSIBILITY
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Coördinating instruction of all the special fields in the light of general objectives</li> <li>2. Preserving an appropriate balance in the attention accorded to the various special fields</li> <li>3. Developing a consistent philosophy of education in teachers of all fields</li> <li>4. Guiding teachers, particularly inexperienced teachers, in their use of general methods of teaching</li> <li>5. Studying pupil needs in general</li> <li>6. Studying pupil progress in general</li> <li>7. Directing experimentation involving more than one field</li> <li>8. Conducting conferences of teachers on problems of general method</li> <li>9. Stimulating teachers to improve their understanding of education in general</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Defining the place of the special field in the total program of secondary education, time allotments, etc.</li> <li>2. Avoiding undesirable overlapping of two or more special fields</li> <li>3. Selecting, promoting, and assigning teachers (in so far as delegated)</li> <li>4. Considering any proposal initiated by either principal or specialist which necessarily implicates the other</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Defining detailed objectives of special field in harmony with general objectives</li> <li>2. Selecting appropriate subject-matter for courses in special field</li> <li>3. Guiding special methods of teaching</li> <li>4. Selecting equipment, books, and materials within limits set by general administration</li> <li>5. Studying pupil needs in a special field</li> <li>6. Studying pupil progress in special field</li> <li>7. Experimenting in a special field</li> <li>8. Coördinating instruction in a special field between junior and senior high school</li> <li>9. Conducting conferences of teachers in a special field</li> <li>10. Stimulating teachers to extend their mastery of their special field</li> </ol>



With a general understanding that the principal is the head of a school responsible not only for its special program contributing to the city-wide educational program, but also for its effective promotion, the whole matter of his relationship with supervisors sent to him by the superintendent becomes simple. If both he and the supervisors have a common understanding of education and of the general program developed for the community, there are likely to be few and unimportant professional conflicts. If they disagree on the fundamentals, the principal should dominate until he is converted or overruled by the superintendent. "When a principal ignores or refuses to adopt the suggestions of supervisors or other expert advisers, he makes himself accountable to the superintendent."

**IV. Relations with Department Heads.**—The department head is a special supervisory officer directly responsible to the principal. He is an extension of the principal's arm, as the principal is an extension of the superintendent's. As the head is strong and grows in effectiveness, so the principal is strong and the school grows in effectiveness. In the supervisory program the relations that exist between the principal and heads of departments should in general be the relations that the principal wishes to exist between him and the superintendent.

It is unnecessary here to consider the frequency with which public high schools have heads of departments and their effectiveness. They are very common in the larger schools and are not unknown in schools with only two or three teachers to a subject. Koch in several articles, one of them entitled "Is the Department Headship in Secondary Schools a Professional Myth?"<sup>1</sup> has shown that the office is seldom used as a potent aid to the improvement of instruction. "There can be no denying the fact," he says, "that the department headship is in confusion. There is apparently little agreement among school administrators as to what in actual practice its function should be. No generally accepted criteria of selection of individuals for the position are operative." The question that will be considered here is what the relations should be between the principal and department heads when they exist.

<sup>1</sup> *School Review*, 38:336-349, May, 1930. See also *School Review*, 38:263-275, April, 1930, and *The English Journal*, 21:372-378, May, 1932.



*Characteristics and duties.* Ideally a department head should have the same general characteristics as the principal, being professionally minded, forceful, persistent, tactful, and full of growth. Also he should have similar education, soundly based on a knowledge of the principles of education with special training in the field over which he is put in charge. In a few schools that are working toward new types of integrated curricula, there are heads of groups of teachers working toward the same special objectives, like citizenship or the enjoyment of aesthetics, rather than of science or modern foreign languages. In the field of his assignment the head will perform the same kinds of supervision that the principal unaided would do, with special responsibilities for continuously improving and enriching courses of study, selecting texts and books of reference, selecting, giving, and interpreting the results of tests, carrying on coöperative experiments, locating and directing unusual promises of growth in teachers, giving aid to needs—in short, performing all the supervisory duties for which he has special competence. In the same school the principal may well have one department head emphasize one type of activity and another a group of activities that he is better qualified to carry on. Under no circumstances, however, should the principal resign his own responsibility for general supervision or for directing the work of his assistants. The best possible training for the duties of a supervising principal is to serve as a supervising head of a department.

The duties that a departmental head may perform, both as an administrator and as a supervisor, are numerous. F. W. Johnson listed more than two hundred under the following heads:

1. Assume the leadership in the organization of the department and in the formulation of a constructive departmental policy;
2. Assist in formulating school policies;
3. Support the policies of the school;
4. Interpret the policies of the administration to the department;
5. Interpret the policies of the department to the administration;
6. Provide an efficient teaching staff;
7. Plan the program of studies;
8. Provide the materials of instruction;
9. Care for student personnel problems;
10. Support the extra-curricular activities of the school;
11. Provide for and direct the clerical work of the department;
12. Prepare departmental reports to the administration;
13. Take care of



visitors to the department; 14. Participate in professional activities; 15. Coöperate with other departments and institutions; 16. Give the department desired publicity; 17. Direct investigations in the department; 18. Care for the routine matters connected with practice teaching. There will be some dissent from the allocation of all these duties and especially of all the subsumed minor ones, which are not reported, to the department head; but the list evidences the breadth of his possible assistance.

*Members of the principal's cabinet.* The principal may well use the department heads as a cabinet that will aid in formulating the policies of the school, which will later be discussed and developed by the entire faculty in group meetings. In this way he not only gets invaluable aid, but he has an opportunity for the best type of professional training of the assistants on whom he will increasingly depend for the improvement of the school. In general the principal should consider himself a supervisor of supervisors. In his own contacts with the teachers he will be most concerned with the broad principles of education, the educational policies of the school, and the general principles of teaching and of learning, leaving to the assisting heads further interpretation of the policies and the responsibility for leading the teachers to carry them into effect.

*Assigning duties.* The principal should not assign too rigidly the duties of the department heads. As indicated above, he should capitalize the peculiar abilities of each one, performing himself those duties that any chairman does not have aptitude for, at least until he learns something of how to perform them with a fair promise of success. In a sense each department head will under direction develop his own job. This does not mean that the principal will retain direct responsibility for all the supervisory duties in which he feels himself superior in effectiveness. He must allow each assistant to learn by trial and success under his direction how to perform them to the extent of his possibilities. That is the best means of his growth. It is to be expected that department heads will make mistakes and that in some matters they will never achieve the effectiveness of their leader. But the extent to which they become competent is the extent to which the school improves and the principal is relieved for further planning and directing in more general ways.



*Providing assistance.* The wise principal will provide such assistance as he can to the heads for administrative routines. There are programs to be made, supplies to be handled, reports to be prepared, and innumerable other duties that must be performed, but it is foolish economy to assign them to the superior members of the staff and to require that they be done by men and women who receive salaries much greater than those of clerks who would do them equally well. Not only should the principal provide necessary assistance by clerks, pupils, and teachers, but he should rigorously insist that the heads devote the major part of their energies to the improvement of instruction. When one manifests more interest in routines than in supervision, it is time to change heads, relegating the incompetent one to the work that he can do best. Perhaps he would make an admirable clerk. If the principal assigns or permits an unnecessary amount of routine work to the department heads, he loses the aid that he might have in supervision and he increases his own responsibility for direct assistance to the teachers. It should go without saying that the heads of departments cannot be expected to be effective in supervision unless they are given time for it. Their teaching schedules should be light in proportion to their manifested competence to assume responsibility.

*Coördinating department heads.* One of the major responsibilities of the principal in relation to heads of departments is to coördinate them into a team working toward the same general objectives. Every head is likely to have a high regard for the field of his specialty and to tend toward over-emphasis on academic achievements in it. The principal can secure a large degree of coördination by developing with the departmental heads and later with the faculty as a whole an educational program for the school, by planning with them the campaign for a given period of time so that all are simultaneously attacking the same general problems or promoting the same types of activities, and by planning with each one individually the work that he will undertake with the teachers assigned to his supervision. Davis found in the North Central Association schools that only 58 per cent of the principals reported that they held conferences with departmental heads. When a teacher is working under two or more heads, split programs often making



that temporarily necessary, the principal has a special challenge for coördination. Though the need is thus more patent, it is no more real than when teachers have unified programs in a single subject. The principal will from time to time observe classes with the department head and occasionally join with him in conferences with individual or groups of teachers, and he will by informal conversations keep in touch with his work and consider reports of progress. The principal cannot assign duties and then divorce himself from responsibility for their effective performance. He has constantly to guide, stimulate, encourage, coördinate, and make evaluations that indicate the next steps needing to be taken.

*Promoting morale.* The principal is responsible for the general morale of the school which facilitates supervision, and he should be constantly on the alert to increase the prestige of each departmental head. It is inevitable that, varying in personalities, in competence, and in industry, they will vary in their supervision, that the variations will be discussed by the teachers, and that criticisms will be made. The principal should by the intimate professional contacts previously suggested insure that mistakes are as few as possible and, while endeavoring by coöperative planning to reduce the probability of their recurrence, he should give all possible support to diminish the effects of criticism and to maintain prestige. Public praise for what is praiseworthy, and the assignment of special responsibilities of the kind that each one can assume with promise of success, are helpful means. Sometimes the supervisory program is promoted by an open statement to the teachers of what they may expect from each supervisor. Criticism of each head should be given frankly to him when he needs it as a stimulus to his maximum most skilled effort, but it should always be administered in private in such a way that it is constructively helpful and not discouraging or depressive. When a head cannot be made effective, usually it will be best for him to be transferred to another school as a teacher. The rotation of the headship among the teachers of a department is seldom wise if supervisory leadership is desired. It is not a bad practice if the head is expected merely to care for administrative routines.

**V. Relations with Teachers.**—It is with the teachers that a principal has the most continuous contacts, and he should be



perfectly clear as to his ideal relation to them. Some of the most important of these relations are the following:

1. *The principal should manifest to the teachers his professional competence by his actions rather than by repeated assertions.* Few things can so rapidly discredit him as talk about his preparation, his experience, his official powers, and his competence, if he does not give evidence of them by the efficiency of his work.

2. *The principal should set an example to the teachers by practicing good pedagogy, by the energetic and economically effective performance of his duties, and by steady, professional growth.* What he does and how he does it are quite as influential as what he says the teachers ought to do.

3. *The principal should keep school matters on a professional rather than on a personal level.* The reasons for what he orders or advises should have sound foundations on principles and facts, which should usually be made clear. He should never be dictatorial or arbitrary. If professional relations are to be satisfactory, they must be based on common ideals, competence consistently manifested, mutual respect, and a high spirit of coöperativeness.

4. *The principal should always treat teachers as social equals and manifest to them unfailing respect and courtesy.* Nothing in an official position warrants an assumption of social superiority; and if such superiority exists, evidence of a consciousness of it makes good professional relations difficult if not impossible.

5. *The principal has the responsibility as the official superior of teachers to develop pleasant social relations,* which, besides being worthwhile in themselves, may facilitate professional coöperation. When because of individual characteristics they cannot be made satisfactory, both principal and teachers should subordinate personal feelings to professional coöperation.

6. *The principal should recognize teachers' rights as well as their obligations.* As social and political individuals teachers have wide rights, which they cannot be expected to abrogate because of their professional employment. Even in school they have a right to be treated with respect and courtesy and may hold and, on the proper occasion, express opinions of their own.

7. *The principal should aid new teachers in becoming adjusted to the school and to the community.* The school is often a terrifying place to teachers without experience and a confusing one



to those transferred from a different environment. They also need help, which the principal can give directly or through others, that will facilitate their making desirable contacts in the community, contacts that will develop personal happiness without which effective teaching is difficult. Assistance in the first trying days will later pay many dividends.

8. *The principal should permit and encourage the teachers to share in the educational program of the school and in determining its policies.* Thus they not only have a better understanding and are more likely to approve of both program and policies, but they assume greater responsibility for carrying them out. With this sharing, teachers early come to think of "our problems" and "our plans."

9. *The principal should so coöperate with committees of the faculty* that their recommendations will be consistent with the general program and policies of the school and will rarely be rejected. The use of committees representing the faculty is highly educative to the members, besides being economical of time and, when wisely directed, profitable in contributions.

10. *The principal should clearly state and justify to the teachers all school policies* as soon as they are promulgated, whatever their source. The more "official" they are in origin, the greater the need for convincing justification. He will then help the teachers to develop plans for most successfully carrying them into effect. Although the principal is ultimately responsible for their success, the teachers also share this responsibility. He has a right to the heartiest coöperation.

11. *The principal should organize and administer the school so as to make good teaching progressively easier.* These are matters for which he alone is responsible. Failure on his part not only obstructs good teaching but also sets up irritations that weaken the morale of the teachers and lower their professional ambition. While administration is important, the principal should always look on it merely as facilitating the educational work of the school.

12. *The principal should develop morale in the teachers* by constantly seeking to know and to use their peculiar talents, both personal and professional. He not only should find their existing and promising abilities, especially in originality, initiative, and coöperation, but he should provide opportunities for



their use whenever and wherever possible. That he appreciates them and directs their growth creates a highly desirable relationship.

13. *The principal should strive to make every teacher realize that good work and even honest efforts are appreciated.* He should always commend meritorious achievement, giving it recognition not only in the school but also to the general public. A consciousness of appreciation and recognition stimulates teachers as hardly anything else can do.

14. *The principal should anticipate a teacher's difficulties and help to prevent them.* The ounce of prevention is worth the pound of cure, in its effect not only on the pupils but also on the confidence and the competence of the teacher.

15. *The principal should aid the teachers to overcome their difficulties.* Sometimes help will need to be given by direct specific suggestion, occasionally by removing the cause, perhaps even by a transfer of the teacher or of some pupils; but the help most effective in the long run is that based on a better understanding of the purposes of education and the principles of good teaching and learning.

16. *The principal should be sympathetic in understanding difficulties, skilled in finding causes, and entirely frank in conferences about them.* When necessary to administer criticism, he should make it of the activity rather than of the teacher, and he should never fail to permit a teacher to "save his face" and thus retain a measure of self-respect, however bad a performance may have been. A teacher wants to know how to overcome difficulties, but he does not want to be blamed for them.

17. *The principal should protect teachers from criticism by others.* There will be criticism of teachers from pupils, parents, other teachers, and the public, some of it of course justified. But criticism should as a rule be kept from the teacher and when possible it should be destroyed by contradictory facts or tempered by publicized evidence of meritorious accomplishment.

18. *The principal should help and lead rather than criticize and drive.* An effective educational program can never develop when the principal considers himself chiefly an administrative officer who drives teachers at their work and rates them on their unaided accomplishment. Perhaps this extreme is never found,



but in far too many cases principals are nearer to it than to the ideal of leading teachers to concern for educational problems and policies and to coöperative work along the lines that commonly-arrived-at decisions indicate. The relations of the principal and the teachers must be that of fellows in a high enterprise of recognized social significance, the principal not acting as a boss who merely assigns a field of work and evaluates results by unrevealed and usually inadequate standards. The principal should develop a far-reaching educational program looking to an ever higher goal, convince the teachers of its worth, and constantly work with them to make it effective; and he will grant them the same opportunity for participating in the formulation of the program and the same freedom in their own fields of work as he expects for himself from the superintendent.

19. *The principal should be approachable and accessible, mentally as well as physically, to teachers.* There are instances of principals who are too much occupied with administration and with outside activities for teachers in need of help to find them, and there are more instances of principals who when found do not give their single-minded attention to the educational problems brought to them. If a machine breaks down or is working at less than its full efficiency, no foreman in a factory will fail to give it immediate attention if he feels himself competent to remedy the defect; the principal, a professional leader, can afford to do no less. This does not mean that he can be interrupted at any moment by a teacher who has real or fancied difficulties or even by those who have some ambitious plan for progress on which help is needed; but it does mean that he must either see the teacher when the interest is at its height or that he will make an appointment for a conference soon enough to insure that the interest and recognition of need have not subsided. Help at that time is far more likely to be effective than at any other. Then there exists the self-motivation that every leader constantly seeks to arouse. When teachers manifest an inclination to run to him too frequently about petty problems which they should attempt to solve for themselves, the remedy is to set them at some larger problem that will demand their full powers. People do not worry about pimples when they are engaged in a wide campaign for health.



20. *The principal should encourage teachers to express freely their opinions.* Every teacher has his own ideas about how a school ought to be run and about the educational program that it has accepted, and these ideas are worth hearing whether the principal agrees with them or not. If they are poor, they would better be expressed to him so that they are brought into the open and eradicated or improved through frank discussion. Nothing so undermines a program as disagreements concealed from the principal and covertly expressed to others with growing confidence and resultant increase of disloyalty. If they are good, the principal can often profit from them, and their recognition with direction for application will strengthen not only the program but the teachers themselves. Whether poor or good, they should be listened to with attention that is hospitable and understanding. Nothing is so discouraging to sharing one's ideas with another as the feeling that the listener is giving only half his attention, being preoccupied with other matters, or the suspicion that he is all the while thinking up reasons why the speaker is wrong.

When teachers know that their ideas are wanted, that they will be heard fully and considered fairly, and that when they prove to be good something will be done about them immediately or ultimately, they will come to the principal freely. The wise principal will give to suggestions from teachers the benefit of the doubt; he will have and will inculcate an experimental attitude. When he finds the suggestions good, even identical with those that he has previously made, he will make an opportunity to credit them publicly to the teacher expressing them to him. This form of tact strengthens the loyalty of the teacher, helps him and others more readily to express themselves, and often results in greater hospitality or freer discussion by other teachers than if the idea is stated by the principal himself. Hospitality to teachers' ideas and a freedom of discussion are the bases for the desired feeling of shared responsibility and coöperative work.

21. *The principal should accept the ultimate responsibility for everything that is done in the school.* Some directed practices will prove to be bad, and many mistakes which the principal would not approve will be made by teachers in the classrooms. But just as he gets credit for the successes of the school, though he



takes pains to assign it to the teachers who perform the actual work, he must fully accept the criticism and the blame for what is thought by others to be bad. It is a hard pill to swallow, especially when the criticized detail is contrary to his suggestions or even to his orders, but he must swallow it none the less—and without making a wry face where it can be seen. For he is the responsible leader of the school; he has not anticipated the trouble and prevented it; he has not yet succeeded in developing such professional strength that it was impossible or of relative unimportance. By taking the blame he recognizes his responsibility as the head of the school, and he is in a better position to prevent its recurrence. When he takes the blame without attempting to shift it to the individual at fault, the whole faculty has a feeling not only of security but of increased loyalty to the principal and to their job. With renewed spirit they will support the principal and the program, and with confident energy they will attempt to prevent a recurrence of the fault or of others like it, and they will buckle down to achieve successes that can be popularized so as to be in the focus of popular attention.

Following are two letters from teachers to an instructor in a university under whom they had worked and with whom they had cordial personal relations. They reveal attitudes that any principal can profit by considering.

March 23, 1926.

DEAR PROFESSOR:

I am glad to respond to your inquiry.

Our principal returned last fall filled with enthusiasm for the summer school—the most delightful experience, he declared, of his life. Even yet he cannot say enough about the good times he had. He has talked especially about the Men's Dinner, which must have been a wonderful event, about excursions to points of interest in the city, and about the course that was addressed by a number of noted educators, whom he was interested to see in the flesh. His jolly good nature makes him very popular with us all.

Our school has run along this year as usual with no significant changes.

Yours truly,

HELEN MARKHAM.



March 21, 1926.

MY DEAR PROFESSOR:

I am very glad to answer your question. Our school has gone very well this year—with increasing momentum, it seems to me, every month. I am old enough to expect no sudden miracles, but experience this year has convinced me that there is a kind manifested by sure, steady change.

To be specific: The machinery of our school is now less obvious. Formerly an end in itself, to all appearances, it now somehow moves so quietly and effectively that we scarcely give it a thought. We work because of it, not for it. Then our teachers' meetings, which used to be called sporadically and with painful monotony and tediousness of program, are held regularly and concern matters in which we are interested. In fact, we have had a large share in deciding what we shall discuss. We even look forward to them with some eagerness (which is a miracle) as in them we have been trying all together to solve some of our common problems, which, I confess, I really never understood before. As someone remarked, there is in our school now an "education mindedness." We are making headway, too.

Our principal has joined us heartily in all our work—in fact, he has suggested several of our best problems, and he seems to understand them and us better. I have gone to him several times with my troubles, and sometimes he has helped me and every time he has been understanding. He is this year more in the classrooms and less in the corridors.

His devotion to our common work makes him no less pleasant to get along with. I hope you came to know him last summer.

Yours sincerely,

JULIA WEEKS.

**VI. Relations with the Community.**—Although the principal's relations with the community affect only indirectly his program for improving instruction, it is important that the ideal for this relationship be clarified. The general problem of community relationships is better discussed elsewhere. It is necessary, of course, for the principal to know the community in which he works and to become an active part of it outside the school. The more competence he manifests as a citizen and as a leader or participant in the outside activities in which he engages, the more confidence the public will have in him as a professional educator and the more willing to leave the management of the school to him. But public indifference to what the school does is worse than active effort to influence the running of the school.



*Popularizing the program.* In order that he may have the support of the public in the best sense, the principal should popularize the program that he and the teachers have developed. It is not sufficient that he merely tell the public what the school is doing and what it hopes to do; he must give such convincing justification of its reasons that the inevitable dissatisfaction and criticism of the few will have little influence. There are many effective means of proper publicity for the school: news, interviews, and articles for the local papers; talks at parent-teachers' association meetings and before clubs of various sorts and in churches at an "education evening," which can often be arranged; less formal talks with parents and other citizens; news that is carefully selected and prepared and sent out through teachers and students; exhibits at the school or in display windows downtown, etc. Such means to give the public not merely an understanding but also appreciation leading to support should be used only after careful preparation. The principal has to learn how to give the information "news value," and in this he can be helped by a sympathetic newspaper reporter and by those teachers who have a peculiar flair in this respect. What school news should be given especial prominence may well be considered by the whole faculty or by a carefully selected committee to whom they delegate the responsibility. News stories thus prepared that always introduce some of the principles underlying the school program are likely to prove highly effective. Full advantage should be taken of the opportunity to send these prepared stories out orally through the students to their families and friends.

Parent-teacher associations offer an interested and sympathetic means of gaining public understanding and support of the school's educational program. The fact that some principals have found them difficult is evidence of their potentiality. One superintendent remarked that the first thing that he wanted to know about a principal is the activity of the parent-teachers' association. If it prove embarrassing, perhaps there is evidence of a weakness in the principal for leadership. Much valuable information and advice can be obtained from the handbook issued by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Washington, D. C.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Of the quantity of valuable literature on this subject one may profitably read E. P. Cubberley's *The Principal and His School*, pp. 548-558.



*Entertaining visitors.* To gain an understanding of the school the principal should encourage visits by parents and by others. Sometimes a special invitation to see some unusual activity is effective; sometimes pupils can induce their parents and friends to make a visit because of personal interest; occasionally an evening session should be arranged in which working men and women can see an abbreviated regular program; and not infrequently adults who call at the school for another purpose can be detained long enough to see classes at work. But it is not sufficient that the public observe the school; they need to have interpreted to them what they see. Although the principal probably can make the best interpretation, it would be impossible for him to take the necessary time if there were as many visitors as there should be. Consequently the principal should work out with the teachers a technique which they and pupils can use. What courtesies should be shown to visitors? How should the questions that experience has shown they are likely to ask be answered? To what features of the school program and of the classroom activities should their attention be directed? And what lines should the interpretation follow? By developing a technique that answers such questions the teachers themselves become even more conscious of the good features of the school program, and by using it the pupils have a valuable educative experience.

The planning for "open house" on one evening each semester depends too much on local conditions and on the personnel of the faculty to be discussed at length here. It is a rare opportunity to acquaint the public with the school, its general program and its unusual features. Usually it is sufficiently successful in creating interest so that the visitors are willing later to attend a meeting at which they can participate at length in discussing what they have seen and the problems which the faculty present for their consideration. The resultant information and interest contribute much to facilitate good teaching through support of the school's policies and intelligent help at home to improve pupils' attitudes and ambitions.

*Receiving callers.* To protect himself for more important work the principal would do well to publish the hours when he is ready to receive callers, and so far as possible he should keep to the schedule. If he is busy somewhere else than in the



office at the times not scheduled, visitors will be encouraged to call at the stated hours. Much of their curiosity can be satisfied by others—clerks, teachers, or students—using the techniques mentioned above. Superintendent Chewning used to advise that when an angry parent calls to make complaint, the principal should (1) listen quietly and attentively until the caller has talked himself out, (2) be certain he has “said his say” before beginning to reply, (3) search the remarks for something to approve, (4) begin by summarizing fairly what he has said and agreeing with some part of it, (5) gradually lead him to see the other side, (6) give no evidence of impatience or hurry, and (7) at the end of the interview thank the parent for the interest that he has manifested by calling. If the caller can be induced while in the building to see something that he is likely to approve, he will probably become more receptive to the later decision of the principal about the cause of the disturbance. No parent should be permitted while angry to talk with the offending teacher. “To know how to meet people graciously,” says Cubberley, “to get their case quickly, to render a rapid and satisfactory decision, and then to help them to get away without offending them, while you get on to the next case, is an art which every executive who has much work to do has to learn.” Many decisions should be deferred until the caller, especially if he is emotionally upset, has left and there has been time for getting further evidence and for reflecting on the whole case. But when the decision is made, the complainant should be informed of it. Usually by the time it is made, the caller, partly disarmed by his courteous reception, is quite ready to appreciate the reasons for it.

*Calling on parents.* Except in very small communities it is questionable whether the principal should do much in the way of calling at the homes of pupils to discuss their work with the parents. There are very real values in having the teachers, especially the counselor of the pupil, make such calls, in which they attempt to learn not only the environment in which he lives but also the explanation of peculiar characteristics. No such call should ever be made without commendation of something about the pupil and an explanation of some part of the general program of the school. Teachers should be trained for these calls as carefully as they are for other professional



duties. There is a tactical advantage in having most calls on parents made by the teachers; the principal informed of what they have learned can interpret and use it when the parents call on him at his office. This gives a certain dignity to the official position and puts a part of the responsibility for adjustment on the parents themselves.

*Reports to parents.* Report cards are another means of keeping parents informed about the work of the school and thus making them hospitable to its program. The traditional report card, reporting "marks" on subjects, does little of this. If one is to be used, it should be devised to give each parent the information that he wants and that he also ought to have. When these implied questions are answered by the faculty, a satisfactory report form can be devised, often with the help of the parents themselves. It should not be overlooked that, either alone or accompanied by a bulletin or a personal letter, they can be highly informative. The writing of personal letters periodically to parents about the successes, the programs, and the problems of pupils—the normal ones who are not outstanding because of either achievements or failures, as well as the others—should be an established practice. If the school is large, the principal can undertake this responsibility for a certain number of pupils each week or, after faculty discussion of the desirable characteristics of such letters, he can delegate at least a part of the responsibility to selected teachers.

*Using adult education.* A final means to be mentioned of improving the principal's relations with the public so that the educational program can be facilitated is the direction of certain phases of adult education. In many communities the high school building, equipment, and often the staff are used for courses for adults desirous of further improving themselves. This affords an opportunity not merely to give the desired education but also to furnish these citizens with a continuing explanation of the program to which the school is committed. No explanation can be so efficacious as one that is accompanied by a demonstration in which the public as learners has a part. Careful planning and continuous supervision will be needed to keep the teachers at this task of using the opportunity to educate adult students as to the new program for the secondary school, as well as to knowledge and skills in the fields that they elect.



## EXERCISES

1. In what ways have you known members of a Board of Education to attempt to influence the educational program of a high school? What should the principal have done in each case?

2. Following is a statement of the causes of a bad relationship between a principal and a superintendent. How might they have been prevented?

An alert, well-trained superintendent of schools took charge of a system in which the high school principal had for six years under the preceding administration been allowed to do almost entirely as he thought best. (It is assumed that both men are professional in spirit and desirous of the best results.) The personal relations between them are pleasant, but not intimate. The superintendent gains the impression that the principal is competent in administration but educationally conservative, and that the high school needs a number of radical changes. Following are four actions that disturb the principal, as they were without previous conference with him.

(A) The superintendent sharply criticized at a parent-teacher association meeting the work of the high school, specifying the marking system as highly unsatisfactory.

(B) He gave to seventy pupils from the seventh grade a double promotion into the high school and placed over them an "adjustment teacher," who was directed to report directly to him.

(C) He frequently visited the high school classes and gave criticism and suggestions directly to the teachers.

(D) After the principal, following the custom, had refused to approve an appropriation from the treasury of the Athletic Association to buy sweaters for the members of a victorious football team, the superintendent promised a delegation of the players his support before the Board of Education to a petition that they would overrule the principal.

3. Assuming that a personal conference was for some reason impossible, criticize the following letter as to its content and its tact.

MY DEAR MR. SUPERINTENDENT:

During the past few months a number of incidents have occurred that mitigate against the effectiveness of the work of the high school. Each one results, I am convinced on reflection, from a failure on your part and on mine to agree as to the professional relations between the superintendent and the principal. Assuming this to be true, I am presenting what I conceive to be the principles on which such relations should be based, hoping that after consideration you and I may have on the matter a personal conference which I am sure will lead to agreement and more effective team work.



1. The superintendent is the responsible professional head of the school system. It is his duty to formulate school policies and, after securing their approval by the Board of Education, to see that they are carried out.
2. It is necessary for the best results that those who carry out the details of the policy should be thoroughly informed concerning it, and it is highly desirable, if not necessary, that the principal should be called on by the superintendent to coöperate in the formulation of any policy that concerns his school. The final decision rests with the superintendent, subject to approval by the Board of Education. It is expected that the principal will from time to time voluntarily propose new policies for consideration by the superintendent. On these the principal should always be given a full and appreciative hearing.
3. The superintendent should approve the principal's general plan, amended after conference, for carrying out an adopted policy, and leave the details to the discretion of the principal. He should hold the principal responsible for results and give him directly criticism and constructive suggestions for more effective achievement.
4. The superintendent may have the right personally to administer any detail in the high school, but it is the part of wisdom for him to work entirely through the principal. (Specifically: The superintendent should for his information visit classrooms and observe recitations, but his criticisms of teachers and suggestions to them should be made through the principal.)
5. When an emergency makes direct personal action by the superintendent seem wise, he will report what he has done to the principal.

Yours truly,  
HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL.

4. What modifications do you think should be made in the following regulations which the Board of Education subsequently passed to relieve the situation presented above?

#### RULES GOVERNING THE PRINCIPAL OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

(1) As the high school is an integral part of the school system, it is the duty of the principal to coöperate in carrying out the policies of the superintendent as approved by the Board of Education.

(2) As it is necessary for the best results that those who carry out the details of a policy should be thoroughly informed concerning it, the principal should be called on by the superintendent to coöperate in the formation of any policy that concerns his school. The principal should be encouraged to suggest new policies to which full and appreciative consideration should be given. It is understood, however, that the final decision rests with the superintendent and the Board of Education.



(3) After a general policy has been adopted, the carrying out of the details should be left in the hands of the principal, subject to constructive criticism by the superintendent.

(4) The principal's contact with the Board of Education should be through the superintendent, the superintendent's contact with the high school should be through the principal. Everything pertaining to his school should pass through the hands of the principal. All teachers and other employees doing work in the high school should report directly to him and through him to the superintendent. This provision does not imply that the superintendent shall not visit and inspect all departments in the high school, but suggestions and criticisms should be made through the principal.

(5) It shall further be the principal's duty to plan the program of studies, and to assign subjects, rooms, and hours to the teachers, subject to the approval of the superintendent.

(6) The principal also shall encourage as far as seems wise extra-curricular activities of students, and promote within reasonable bounds a democratic administration of the school. He shall have the veto power over all student organizations.

(7) The superintendent should hold the principal responsible for results in the high school. As these results are so vitally dependent upon the teachers employed, the principal should be called into consultation by the superintendent in the selection of new teachers, and weight should be given to his recommendation. It is understood, however, that the final decision in each case rests with the superintendent subject to approval by the Board of Education.

(8) As the administrative head of the school, the principal shall be responsible for the general discipline, and such other duties as are necessary to keep the school running in an effective manner.

5. If you were urged to accept a principalship and asked to present an outline of the duties, responsibilities, and freedom that you would demand before accepting election, what should you say?

6. What difficulties have you known a principal to meet from supervisors responsible to the superintendent? Knowing the conditions, how should you as principal attempt to anticipate, prevent, and overcome the difficulties?

7. In how small a school are department heads justifiable? On what bases should they be selected? Set down in some detail the program that you as principal would use in training them. Keeping in mind someone who you think would make a good department head, list the major duties that you would assign him.

8. Would it be wise for a principal to draw up with the teachers a statement of the ideal relations that should exist between them? If so, what details should you propose for inclusion and what should you have in mind but not share with them by open declaration?



9. List some of the difficulties that you have known to arise when a principal has attempted to supervise teachers, account for these difficulties, and tell how they might have been prevented or overcome.

10. What community relations that have not been stated do you think desirable for the purpose of making possible or of promoting the program for improving the education furnished by the school?



## CHAPTER VII

---

### SOME PRINCIPLES OF SUPERVISION

---

**Definition.**—Supervision is the systematic and continuous effort to encourage and direct such self-activated growth that the teacher is increasingly more effective in contributing to the achievement of the recognized objectives of education with the pupils under his responsibility.

**Some Negative Principles.**—This definition very clearly indicates that the fundamental and primary objective of supervision is not, as one writer has stated, to help teachers solve the immediate difficulties of instruction. Nor is it “to cast a genial influence over his schools, but otherwise not to interfere with the work.” Rather, it is so to help teachers to appreciation of the principles of education and to the ability so to apply these principles that they grow in power to solve their own difficulties as they arise. Undoubtedly many teachers want to be told exactly what to do in troublesome situations, and many supervisors have attempted to give such help. At crucial times it will be necessary or at least advisable for the good of the pupils and for the preservation of a teacher’s prestige to make direct and specific suggestions. But such action should be recognized as palliative and of only temporary importance. However good it may be for the disturbing situation, it seldom is of permanent value, for the exact circumstances are not likely to occur again, and a teacher may be led to apply the prescription mechanically for a disease that needs quite different treatment. The ideal is to build up such a convinced faith in sound principles of education and such power in applying them to solving problems of teaching that a teacher is progressively more able to help himself. What the teacher becomes able to do without assistance is the evidence of effective supervision.

1. *Supervision should, then, seldom if ever be arbitrary or authoritative*, consisting of orders or of suggestions as to procedure. If it should seem wise in an emergency for a supervisor



to issue such orders or to make such suggestions, he should at the earliest opportunity explain the principles underlying his action and seek not only to convince the teacher of their soundness, but also to help him in a sufficient number of other applications until he has begun a habit of self-help by reference to fundamental principles. A suggestion or an order may lead to the temporary betterment of a specific practice; but true growth in power is possible only when the teacher acquires such understanding of principles and such ability to apply them at need that he grows from within. ·

2. *Supervision should not be based on the power of position or of personality.* A teacher who follows a suggestion or a direction merely because it is given by an official superior stultifies his own personality and inhibits his own growth. He may comply because of respect or of fear; he may find the suggestion immediately helpful. But he is less likely to think for himself, to grapple with his own problems, to seek to find the reasons why he should teach in this way or in that. He is more likely when another difficulty arises to run to the supervisor for specific help, either because he has received it before and is helplessly eager to receive it again, or because he fears to act independently without official direction. The total amount of specific assistance that a supervisor can give an individual teacher is small in proportion to the many needs. When supervision consists of specific helps, it necessarily must be inadequate; in the face of the great majority of challenges a teacher must inevitably make his own decisions. Without the help of fundamental understanding he tends either to apply a prescription that is not pertinent or to carry on traditionally and often ineffectively. His thinking lacks the stimulus and the sanction of sound principles. Moreover, a supervisor should recognize that a teacher who seeks and follows official directions is the one most likely to switch allegiance, to follow blindly any suggestions made by "authorities" whether or not they are sound or appropriate to the situation. Continuous self-activated growth leading to constantly increasing power does not come from authoritative supervision.

3. *Supervision should never be divorced from a constant recognition of the goals of education,* which are to be approached by means of the experiences that constitute the course of study.



This principle is fundamental. Unless the supervisor keeps it constantly in mind, admittedly a difficult thing to do in the face of demands for specific help, he will fritter away most of his strength and prove far less effective than the opportunities of his position demand. As emphasized again and again in this book, especially in the suggestions made for classroom observations, teachers meetings, and supervisory conferences, the supervisor should have constantly in mind the goals of education and the specific contributions to that end that every group of experiences can make. He should regard them not merely as criteria of the value of the experiences provided or used by the teacher, but also as guides to adaptation of both experiences and method and to the invention of better ones. In nothing do teachers need more help than in this. They are likely to give ready approval to proposed goals, but they need the constant influence of a supervisor to make such goals continuously directive of their plans and procedures day by day.

4. *Supervision should not, as a rule, be largely concerned with the details of subject-matter or of instruction.* This principle is obviously a corollary of the preceding ones. Details have meaning only in reference to the whole of which they are parts. An assignment, a question, or a test may be good in one situation and entirely meaningless or bad in another. When supervision emphasizes details it usually destroys perspective. It should be concerned with details only to make the teacher constructively critical of them as contributing to larger objectives. Usually details are not in themselves bad or good, but, rather, worse or better means of achieving an end. Supervision has the prime responsibility of helping the teacher keep these ends constantly in mind and to devise more effective means of achieving them.

5. *Supervision should not be concerned only with the immediate.* What a teacher does today has a certain significance for what he will do in the endless succession of tomorrows. Some details in an observed recitation may tempt a supervisor to emphasize them far beyond their importance, with results disastrous to the future growth of the teacher. This over-emphasis may, as previously stated, destroy perspective so that the teacher loses sight of the goals he is seeking, or it may make him less hospitable to guidance into matters of paramount significance. What



supervision does today should be in terms of a large program. The ultimate is more important than the immediate. Many matters will wisely be recorded in the supervisor's notebook, with discussion deferred to a more appropriate time. Some may never be discussed with the teacher, though they contribute to the making of the entire developing program for helping him to grow. The supervisor who can refrain from bringing to a teacher's attention criticisms and suggestions for which he is not ready or which may interfere at the time with his growth has learned much in the matter of relative values and also of self-control.

6. *Supervision should never be nagging.* As emphasized elsewhere, the best results from supervision are obtained by encouraging and directing the growth of powers already possessed. Inevitably the supervisor will be called on, however, from time to time to consider with teachers deficiencies in their work and how they may be repaired. When taking up such matters he should, of course, be frank and straightforward, using such tact as the teacher's personality and emotional state demand, and he should leave the impression that the criticism is merely a beginning of a coöperative effort to make the instruction better. But he should never nag, giving the suggestion that he is finding fault without the intent or competence to be constructively helpful, or that he is merely irritating a wound for the pleasure of so doing. Experience has shown that it is easy for a teacher when criticized to feel that the cautery, even when used with the best of intentions, is too severe. The pain, especially when repeated, makes it difficult for him to appreciate its benevolence. A supervisor should lean backward to avoid, especially with sensitive teachers, the impression of nagging.

7. *Supervision should not be impatient of results.* Growth takes time. A supervisor might profitably have some experience as a gardener or even as a forester to appreciate that, with all the contribution possible, the maturity of an organism can never be achieved immediately. There are no miracles in perfecting the growth of teachers, any more than of vegetation. What good teaching should be may be perfectly understood by the supervisor and he may think that he has made the ideal so clear to the teacher that it should be exemplified at once, or at most very shortly. But it is easier to understand than it is to



make clear to others; it is easier to clarify than it is to convince; and it is easier to convince than it is to secure the desired changes in practice. Supervision demands infinite patience, infinite forbearance, infinite hope. Because growth is slow, the supervisor needs to have unwavering faith in his mission and in his methods. Perfection he will never find, for as teachers grow his own ideals should advance. "Man's reach should exceed his grasp."

**Some Positive Principles.**—All these negative principles might be stated positively. But it is felt that there is a certain advantage in stating first some of the things that supervision should not be, in warning the supervisor attempting to develop his own powers of improving instruction against what experience has shown to be not infrequent deleterious attitudes and activities. Following are some characteristics of supervision positively stated:

1. *Supervision should be characterized by simplicity and informality.* There is nothing important in education that cannot be expressed in common words of one syllable; there is no true magnification of the trivial by the creation of involved machinery. The supervisor and the teachers have a common responsibility, which they can best understand when they have described it in simple language. They can also best understand each other in all their conferences when simple language is used to express thought and not to conceal the ill-digested ideas of others. Unnecessarily technical terms may be impressive to the ignorant, but they usually obstruct or confuse communication. When insincerely used, they cause a loss of confidence and even ridicule.

Not only should supervision be simple in its conception and in its expression; it should for the most part be informal too. Of course it will use formal meetings of the teachers, especially for presenting and developing general principles and for agreeing on major policies and programs; but even they should be called and conducted with a minimum of ceremony. By far the larger part of supervision will be carried on subsequently with individual teachers, sometimes in conferences following one or more observations and often in brief conversations in a classroom, in a corridor, on the street, or in a home. The more promotive and preventive the supervision, it may safely be said,



the less the formality. That kind will be carried on best when two people interested to achieve commonly approved aims sit down together to plan coöperatively the best means of success.

2. *Supervision should use only the simplest of machinery.* A supervisor's business is too important to be cumbered with formalities that prevent the rapid development of the coöperative spirit necessary when a group of people sharing a recognized responsibility set themselves to chart paths to improvement. Observation visits should be informal—at least, they should soon become so; teachers meetings should have an atmosphere that permits and encourages everyone to participate actively; and individual conferences should usually be like an extended conversation between two friends who are interested in finding and in solving their common problems. Formality is often an attempt to conceal a lack of confidence in one's competency or to make what powers one possesses seem greater than they really are.

3. *Supervision should begin with conditions and practices as they are.* However unsatisfactory they may be to the supervisor with his wide experience and his high ideals, they exist. No locomotive ever moves a car until it has backed into position for the work to be done. The conception of supervision proposed in this discussion is not that of a powerful force moving an inert mass, it is true; but the figure properly emphasizes that the power of the supervisor cannot be effectively exerted until it recognizes and begins its influence on existing conditions and practices. He must study to learn what they are before he can wisely plan how to influence teachers for their improvement. His challenge will be to keep his ideals high and his faith constant while he recognizes how much is to be done and how far back he must start. On the other hand, "We must not go too fast" not infrequently becomes a lullaby or a soporific to ambition, resulting in doing nothing material at all.

4. *Supervision should be adapted to the capacities, attitudes, and even prejudices of the teachers.* Just as a competent supervisor must recognize conditions as they are and know the prevailing practices of instruction, he must learn to know the teachers themselves. Some already have great competence and abundant capacities; others are limited in both respects. It is a human inclination to underrate abilities and to exag-



gerate limitations. But a continuous effort must be made justly to estimate each. Although supervision is likely in the long run to show its most effective results with the ablest teachers, it has an obligation to all so long as they remain in the school, and it cannot be maximally efficacious unless it adapts itself to the varied capacities for understanding, for application of principles, and for growth through personal effort. This means, of course, that a large part of supervision must be highly individual. While general principles can economically be presented in group meetings where discussion is free and professed approval usually results in a greater feeling of obligation for later loyalty, encouragement and help to translate these principles into practical procedures are most likely to be made effective by individual conferences. In these, all the adaptations necessitated by varied capacities can be made.

Capacity is not the only variable in teachers, nor, perhaps, is it the most important, especially in beginning a supervisory program. Few teachers holding positions in a school are so lacking in capacity as to be unable to profit from wisely adapted supervision. Other variables are attitudes and prejudices. Whatever their causes they are highly important. Whether they result from unhappy former experiences with supervisors, from contagion with others who have accumulated hostile emotions, from personal likes or dislikes, they must be learned and taken into account. The more unreasonable, the more likely they are to be hindrances to supervisory efforts. Some obstructing attitudes and prejudices may be attacked directly in an effort to improve, remove, or redirect them. But, provided they are recognized and respected for what they are, existing elements of the individuals to be influenced, the most effective means of amelioration in the long run is the conscientious and continuous carrying forward of a program for coöperative effort to improve education. When results are manifest, attitudes will become better and prejudices will be redirected toward hearty support.

5. *Supervision should be gradual, progressive, and persistent.* Beginning with conditions and practices as they are and with consideration of the attitudes of the teachers, supervision should attempt at once some simple, constructive help. When that is



appreciated, there is likelihood of receptivity that invites coöperation in the solution of problems the teachers already recognize. In the first few weeks the supervisor should make it a hard and fast rule to express no adverse criticism. As a matter of fact, in almost every instance when some practice is bad, it is more effective for the supervisor to focus the teacher's attention on a better way of procedure than on the defects of the existent one. Each success, however small, makes easier the next. An ambitious supervisor may have difficulty in restraining himself from revealing his whole program at once, from attempting to move too rapidly. What he does is significant only in terms of its success. There is no progress except by the teachers. He must gauge his efforts in terms of what they can assimilate, but he will never cease his efforts. Often he will need to attack the same problem again and again, adapting his methods to individual teachers; sometimes he may have to abandon temporarily a part of his program that seemed to him most promising; occasionally he may need to begin all over again. But he never abandons his effort to help the teachers grow in their own ways.

Gradually he will reveal higher ideals and coöperatively work with the teachers to devise means to progressive development appropriate for each one of them. The supervisor must be patient, persistent, and, although always ready to modify it, consistently faithful to the program that he has made for himself. "Supervision continuously evaluates aims and objectives. Nothing is fixed. An ever changing social structure calls for a continuous sifting of materials and scrutiny of values. The attainment of one goal leads but to others. The coördination of teachers' thinking toward the refinement of common ends is the first function of supervision." <sup>1</sup>

6. *Supervision should be cumulative in its results.* The solution of any problem in teaching should be considered as more than the removal of a specific difficulty or the improvement of a specific practice. It is a contribution to the whole program of supervision, which looks toward the steady and continuous growth of each and every teacher. This the supervisor has to

<sup>1</sup> *Current Problems of Supervision*, p. 8. Third Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930.



keep constantly in mind, both in selecting the problems for attack and in relating the results to the chart of growth. The teachers themselves should from time to time be made aware of the cumulative results of the efforts that they and the supervisor have coöperatively put forth. A realization of progress toward a series of goals that make up the large objective of education, which presumably they have gradually come to appreciate and approve, gives confidence and stimulus to increased and more intelligent activity. Supervision, then, should be concerned with detailed units only as they are made to contribute to the major program of teacher growth. Each accomplishment cumulates a unified constantly progressing whole.

7. *Supervision should be scientific.* This principle should be immediately qualified by addition of the phrase "in so far as science is applicable and effective." Supervision should seek evidence as objective as possible of conditions, of practices, and of results as they exist; but it should recognize that at present we have only crude instruments for measurement. Nevertheless, they are likely to give more reliable evidence than subjective judgments of the stark facts, although they cannot take into consideration, as the supervisor must inevitably do, the conditioning factors and the complex causes. Objective measures are valuable only when the supervisor uses them for what they actually are and only when he interprets them in light of all the additional facts that should be in his possession.

The supervisor should be reasonably expert in the field of scientific measurements. He should know the tests available, exactly what they purport to measure, their reliability, and the norms found by their application in similar situations. When he selects and uses objective tests for specific, clearly understood purposes, he should know precisely what the technical terms indicating central tendencies and dispersal actually mean. Too much of the teaching of statistics has been academic and abstract; too little of it has concerned interpretation in a real situation with indications of practical procedures. These the supervisor must largely learn for himself.<sup>1</sup>

Objective evidence of conditions and results should be put

<sup>1</sup> See Thomas H. Briggs, "An Uncultivated Field," *Teachers College Record*, 38:637-647, May, 1937.



before teachers and interpreted so that they may realize the need of growth in power to improve them. It is a compelling stimulus, probably because of its novelty and assumed authoritativeness more potent than it deserves to be. The conscientious supervisor will never allow stark figures to be a stimulus unless he makes sure that they are thoroughly understood and that they are interpreted by the teachers in light of all conditioning factors that can be found in the local situation. There are some occasions, it must be noted, when it may not be wise to lay before teachers objective evidence that unduly undermines their confidence or further excites their fears that they are being rated for reprimand or dismissal.

The supervisor will use objective measures to reveal the success of his own efforts to improve teaching effectiveness. Such evidence he will similarly interpret and use as a stimulus and guide to more effective efforts. The extent to which he lays it before the teachers will, of course, be determined by his judgment of the probable resulting values. Occasionally it will serve to make the problems of improving instruction more obviously a responsibility common to him and to the teachers. Sometimes it might serve to undermine his prestige and thus to hamper him in his further efforts. Whatever he decides as to laying the evidence before others, he will carefully study it for indications of desired changes in his own procedures.

There are several characteristics of the scientific method applicable to supervision. It should be carefully planned. It should proceed cautiously but steadily toward the sought goals as rapidly as progress can be assuredly made. It will check itself at every step, and periodically it will consider all details as coördinated and contributory to the whole program. It will never allow itself to become so absorbed in details that it forgets its major problem. It will be always ready to modify its techniques and even its program in the light of newly discovered facts or of newly accepted principles. It will try one procedure after another to test a hypothesis or to achieve a desired end until it finds the one that is sound and effective. And, like applied science, it will insure that proved results are introduced, with such modifications as are shown to be necessary, into the practical procedures of the classroom.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Science in supervision is so important, so new, and so incompletely devel-



8. *Supervision should be human and sympathetic.* Science can materially help supervision, but it can never be used alone with effectiveness. Supervision deals with human beings, each one a complex of intelligence and emotions, the latter varying in intensity and in direction from day to day and even from minute to minute. The supervisor must not only recognize this fact, he must also be constantly alert to discover the state of health and the state of emotions of each teacher with whom he is attempting to work. More than this, he must be sympathetic, not in a sentimental sense, but in the true meaning of the word "feeling with" the teacher and respecting the conditions in which he is found. With this attitude the supervisor and the teacher become in rapport, and there is a basis for beginning coöperative work on common problems. Nothing so alienates a teacher and obstructs the progress of the best-intentioned plans as a feeling that he is not understood, that his superior has not taken into consideration all of the pertinent facts, including his own state of health or of what he thinks is his mind, though frequently it is merely his emotions.

**The Need of a Supervisory Program.**—The supervisor will make for himself a comprehensive and fundamentally sound program on which his eyes are constantly fixed. This program will not be frozen; on the contrary it will be a living thing, adapting itself to the environment and steadily growing as new

oped that the student is referred to the following books and articles for further aid:

- Harold H. Abelson, *The Art of Educational Research*. World Book Co., Yonkers, New York, 1933.
- E. W. Allen, "The Nature and Function of Research," Publications of the American Sociological Society, 21:236-247, 1926.
- A. S. Barr, *An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Classroom Supervision*. D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1931.
- Stuart A. Courtis, "Education—A Pseudo-Science," *Journal of Educational Research*, 17:130-132. February, 1928.
- C. V. Good, A. S. Barr, and Douglas E. Scates, *The Methodology of Educational Research*. D. Appleton-Century Co., New York, 1936.
- V. A. C. Henmon, "Measurement and Experimentation in Educational Methods," *Journal of Educational Research*, 18:185-194. October, 1928.
- W. S. Monroe and M. D. Engelhart, *The Scientific Study of Educational Problems*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1936.
- The Scientific Movement in Education*. Thirty-seventh Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois, 1938.
- W. C. Trow, *Scientific Method in Education*. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1925.
- Douglas Waples and R. W. Tyler, *Research Methods and Teachers' Problems*. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1930.



ideals are perceived. Of wisdom and of necessity it will be revealed to the teachers gradually and will modify practices only as it can be made convincing to them. It will doubtless receive direction in its growth and modification from the teachers themselves as they, understanding in part, make suggestions out of their own experience and philosophy. If wise, the supervisor will keep his mind open to all sources—teachers, observed or reported practices in other schools, and theory, whether it be remotely abstract or applied—for hints that will enable him to make the program more sound, more comprehensive, and more nearly adapted to the needs of the community. Unless he has early in his work formulated such a program, he will inevitably tend to give his attention to details that are unrelated either in his own mind or in the consciousness of the teachers, details likely to become more and more trivial and cumulatively irritating to those whom he has the responsibility for helping. Patchwork repair on a traditional mechanism is not his major concern, but, rather, leadership that gives direction to the growth of a stimulated living professional organism.

It is good practice, especially in the beginnings of supervision, for a principal to set down in writing at least the outline of his program, and, lest his work yield too much to the steady stream of demands for administration and of requests by teachers for immediate detailed assistance, to refer to it repeatedly for guidance and for stimulus. Each reference may result in revision, which is encouraging evidence of growth. Each change should, however, be evaluated by the fundamental principles of education to which he has declared his allegiance. The repeatedly amended program will be the best evidence possible of how the supervisor is growing in a comprehension of what his job is. The growth of the supervisor is a highly desirable, if not a necessary, factor in influencing teachers to grow.

*Supervision paramount.* Mention was made above of the steady pressure on a supervisor that tends to divert him from concentration on his major responsibility, that of directing and encouraging the growth of teachers through helping them to understand the large social consequences of their work and to develop the techniques to achieve them most efficiently. The machinery of education cannot be neglected, of course. As suggested elsewhere, it should be made largely a matter of



routine, attended to expeditiously, and delegated to those who are interested in details and effective with them. The principal worthy of leadership will find or make time for supervision. Moreover, he will continually emphasize the fact that administration is merely to facilitate education, that otherwise it has no significance. He can best make this fact convincing by showing to the teachers how the routines, especially those required of them, make possible more effective instruction. Some teachers enjoy the very mechanization of the administrative details of their work, while others rebel openly or in secret at "senseless requirements." Both groups would tend to become more effective teachers if they are led to see how the required administrative tasks are contributory to forwarding the large educational enterprise. In attempting to bring about this appreciation, the principal may learn that some of the required routines are not as important as custom had made him think and that others can just as well be performed by clerks or even by pupils as by teachers.

*Planning the whole.* The importance of making a large supervisory program before the work actually starts cannot be too much emphasized. The temptation to attack some obvious problem without evaluating it in terms of the whole challenge for helping teachers to grow in service is a strong one and likely to be resisted only if the supervisor "images the whole, then executes the parts."

Fancy the fabric  
Quite, ere you build, ere steel strikes fire from quartz,  
Ere mortar dab brick.

Tempting and insistent challenges may be good, but they acquire significance and relative value only in terms of the whole project. They are likely to range from the trivial, which may wisely be ignored, to the too ambitious, which must be deferred. The best beginning is with the needs of which the teachers are conscious or of which they can be made conscious, needs for doing better what they are already doing well, rather than for correcting petty faults. As soon as possible supervision should lead teachers to comprehend the social significance of their responsibility and to accept a few fundamental principles the



application of which will enable them more assuredly to develop their programs of practical procedures.

*Making a program for supervision inevitably involves a philosophy of education.* As emphasized elsewhere in this book, a concept of education should be clear, sound, comprehensive, adaptable, and pragmatic, that is, both directive and compelling of action. The principles of supervision presented are applicable whether this concept of education is "progressive" or "reactionary." But unless a supervisor has such a concept that satisfies the criteria just mentioned, he will work without knowing his goal and consequently without real effectiveness or material progress.

A philosophy is not the abstract, forbidding thing that it is often thought to be. It is merely a tentatively complete and ordered set of ideas and ideals which give meaning to details. A philosophy of education must constantly reach out beyond the schoolroom and be included in a philosophy of society. The education most appropriate in fascism or in communism cannot be wholly appropriate in a democracy, and the education effective in one locality of a democracy will need certain modifications to insure its maximal effectiveness in others in which conditions and ideals are in some respects different. It follows, then, that a supervisor in making and promoting a program for improving teachers in service must have thought through with satisfaction at least to himself a tentatively complete and ordered set of ideas and ideals of education and of the society to which it is supposed to contribute.<sup>1</sup>

*A philosophy not imposed.* This philosophy, however complete and satisfactory it may seem to the supervisor, he must

<sup>1</sup> "When we survey our experience, the manner in which we view it as a whole, and the corresponding manner in which we order our lives, may be described as our philosophy. It follows that everyone must have a philosophy of some sort in so far as he attempts to act consistently or rationally; and what philosophy at any stage of its development seeks for is a viewpoint from which all aspects of our existing experience may as far as possible appear consistent with one another. It therefore discusses how far any particular belief is consistent with all aspects of our experience, or requires modification to make it so. . . ."

"What we call 'common sense' flits easily from one to another of these inconsistent forms of knowledge, without realizing their inconsistencies.

"At any state of human culture the function of philosophy is to bring consistency into the different accounts, so that we can make a more rational use of each of them. If we just mix them up together the result is not only unintelligible, but produces sooner or later very serious confusion in practical affairs."—J. S. Haldane, *The Philosophy of a Biologist*, pp. 1 and 3. Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1935.



not impose on the teachers. But without it he cannot lead them, as he should do, effectively to order their own ideas and thus to build a philosophy of society and of education that will give significance, direction, and stimulation to their own work. Teachers are most deficient now not in the techniques of instruction, but rather in an understanding of and a devotion to the large meaning of what they are expected to do. "Neither technique nor personality," says Dodd,<sup>1</sup> "are greatly modified by exterior methods alone. Daily classroom plans may be enforced, but their effectiveness will depend upon a teacher's sympathy with and understanding of objectives."

If one objects that teachers are uninterested and incompetent to formulate for themselves a philosophy, he implies that he has no proper practical concept of the term, that he has been too lazy to organize his own thinking, or that he does not recognize the intelligence and the professional ambitions and possibilities of the men and women whom he is employed to lead. Teachers are more and better influenced by clearly formulated and ordered ideals, by convictions, and by a vision of what they may become as effective contributors to the social good than by anything else. How can they become ambitious and effective directors of their own growth unless they perceive and believe in their possibilities and responsibilities for making the community a better place in which to live and in which to make a living? The great majority of teachers enter upon their work with high altruism; they retain it in proportion as they have an expanding appreciation of its importance for the individual pupils and ultimately for society as a whole.

There may have been a time when teachers were supposed merely to obey orders, to follow prescribed courses of instruction in prescribed ways. But that time is happily passing.

In every field of life heretofore, the rule has been for a few men alone to catch the visions of what is to be done and then to ask other men blindly to further these visions. Most of the work of the world has been done without the workers having any clear notions as to what ultimate purpose their work was to subserve. Not only in manual labor is this true; but social and even religious ideals have been handed down to the majority of men as too sacred for anything

<sup>1</sup> M. R. Dodd, "Introducing the Supervisory Program," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 23:63-67, January, 1937.



except literal application. The equality ideal must mean this highly important thing that every man shall be entitled to understand and progressively to create the ends for which his energy goes.

Whatever else may be given to or done for men, they are being offered the worst indignity of all if they are left in the dark as to what ideal purposes their lives further; for the deadliest essence of slavery is the cutting off of human beings from any creative participation in the processes they help to promote.<sup>1</sup>

As H. G. Wells wrote on another matter, "Our deeds are dreadful because our minds are dark."

Supervision should accept as its primary responsibility the development with teachers of a simply stated philosophy of education to which, with minor modifications, all can give devotion. This should be the basis on which all programs are built, the criterion of all practices, both existing and proposed. The supervisor has a never-ending task, after such a philosophy is tentatively formulated and approved, to keep it constantly in the minds of the teachers and to use it continually in stimulating new proposals and in evaluating them. Teachers have ingenuity and fertile inventiveness in devising suitable techniques when they are stimulated and directed by a set of principles and of objectives in which they sincerely believe. In the second German Reich the Ministry of Education furnished secondary school teachers the objectives that they were supposed to attain and *Rechtlinien*, or outlines, of general procedure, leaving to them a decision as to the means to be used. Democracy can do better than this: it can lead teachers coöperatively to agree on the desired objectives, which will be determined by the previously developed philosophy, and then help them to evaluate the means that they invent for most effectively reaching these goals. In no other way can professional integration and intelligent activity be secured.

There is abundant evidence that many teachers do not at present desire that a supervisor shall discuss with them philosophy and objectives.<sup>2</sup> But it is reasonable to assume that this attitude is a result either of lack of experience in such discussions or in discussions that have been imposed, abstract, and futile

<sup>1</sup> T. V. Smith, *The Democratic Way of Life*, pp. 104-105 and 107. University of Chicago Press, 1929.

<sup>2</sup> See *Current Problems of Supervision*, Third Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, pp. 11-12.



of results. A professional and effective teacher cannot be produced by external direction; he can grow only from the internal stimulus of principles and objectives. "The teacher is professionally efficient when she is thoroughly competent in self-analysis, self-criticism, and self-improvement."<sup>1</sup> How can he become thus competent without being self-directed by accepted principles and approved objectives? It is the supervisor's responsibility to reveal the need of them and to make them desired.

*Consistent use of a philosophy.* Although it should be recognized without explicit statement, a supervisor should constantly use his philosophy of education and of society to direct his own thinking and to control his own program and activities to help teachers to grow. This obvious principle is presented here for emphasis. The making of decisions as well as proposals on the basis of snap judgments or of experience without reference to a philosophy is not unknown in education as well as in other fields. But it cannot lead to the supervisor's most sound growth in power or to the expected development of teachers in the habit of thinking and deciding in terms of principles. Such a habit is not an easy one to establish, but it is the ultimate basis of such growth in independence and assurance as is desired and expected of truly professional workers.

**Democracy in Supervision.**—The word "democracy" is used so frequently in educational discussions that the sharp edges of its meaning have become worn and the coin is often offered for what it was never meant to be. The current looseness of meaning has not, however, impaired its essential significance, especially as applied to supervision. Although the word is often palliative of vagueness of thinking, it stands for an ideal essential in the relations of those who work together in education.

This ideal implies, first of all, that teachers and all other officials in the school system have a common responsibility for making education maximally effective for the good directly of the pupils and ultimately of society at large. Teachers are responsible professional agents of society, not mechanical instruments to be used by their official superiors. Consequently they should have an important voice in determining the nature of their work, its objectives and its means. This does not mean

<sup>1</sup> G. C. Kyte, *op. cit.*, p. 45.



that each teacher may consider himself an individualist with the right to make decisions as to what work he shall undertake, what methods he shall use, and what standards of achievement are satisfactory. It means, rather, that every teacher should understand that he is one of a group of responsible public servants the success of whose work depends in large measure—as its steady growth does wholly—on the extent to which each one appreciates his dependence on the others and both his right and obligation to perfect coöperatively the best plans possible for the common project and coöperatively to carry them out to successful achievement.

*Reasons for democracy in supervision.* The reasons for this principle are three: First, from the teachers, all of whom have had some professional training and experience, will inevitably come many suggestions of high value in making and in administering the educational program. They are closest to the pupils, and, usually, to the families; in consequence they are likely to be able to judge better than their more remote official superiors what theories are likely to be practical and what modifications are necessary to make them so. Second, no program can be most successfully administered unless it is both thoroughly understood and heartily supported. Nothing contributes so much to both understanding and support as participation in formulation. And, third, teachers should grow in service, and for the steady pressure necessary for growth they need the stimulus of responsibility.

There are some people holding positions as teachers who have not qualified by social growth to share coöperatively in an educational enterprise. It must be a supervisor's responsibility to help them to such growth, exemplifying so far as he can a democratic attitude himself; but to the extent to which they consider themselves hired servants they must be given definite directions and even orders as to the procedures that they must follow. Such direction, however unfortunately necessary, leads only to mediocre mechanical teaching and effectually inhibits sincerity, ambition, and real professional growth. One who cannot develop not only a willingness but also an eager desire to take his share of responsibility in determining the educational program of a school does not qualify as a professional teacher. Naturally one teacher's contributions will be more frequent



and more valuable than another's, but the effort to contribute to what is recognized as a coöperative enterprise is what leads to growth. Everyone learns by having his contributions discussed and evaluated by his peers as well as by his superiors.

Democracy does not mean that there is less need of leaders. But the leader in a democracy is chosen and maintains his position because he is able not merely to convince others of the soundness of his ideas, but also to recognize the soundness of those contributed by others and to help incorporate them into the general plan. "The keynote of our program of supervision" in Pasadena, reports George H. Meredith, "has been the development of a democratic relationship wherein the flow of suggestions may come either from the teaching corps or from the supervisory staff." As Alberty and Thayer have well stated it, "the democratic leader expresses the common will resulting from coöperative thinking." In devotion to the ideal of democracy one should not go to the extreme of assuming that the supervisor abdicates his leadership and becomes merely one equal voice in the group. If he is no more than that, he does not justify himself as a leader. While utterly hospitable to ideas contributed by teachers and skilled to appreciate their value, as stated or as modified, he should be more fertile of suggestions, more sound of judgment, and more able to lead the group to wise decisions. He remains a leader by proved competence.

*Teachers have a right to grow.* Another implication of the term democracy in supervision is that teachers have a right to grow in their best ways to the maximum development of their native or acquired powers. One criticism frequently made of supervision is that it has expected and even demanded that every teacher work in the same way and follow the same plans. Good supervision should recognize, however, that there are many roads leading to Rome and that each teacher is likely to make the best progress when traveling the one that suits best his style and gait. Good supervision "encourages initiative, originality, self-reliance, self-expression. It stresses success," by whatever means attained, "and lets failure slip into oblivion." It affords every teacher endless opportunities to realize his own personality in his own ways so long as there is a promise of success and no serious jeopardy of the general program.



As Douglass and Boardman express the idea, supervision allows a teacher "to have freedom to think his own thoughts, to exercise initiative, to develop self-reliance, and to assume responsibility for and intelligent participation in the direction of instruction." The more a personality has developed into distinction and strength, the more effective it is likely to be in teaching.

Good supervision is like any other good teaching. It recognizes individual personality, learns from it, stimulates it to develop in the ways that seem most suitable to it, and provides opportunities constantly for its growth. Good supervision of this kind is essential if it hopes to lead teachers to extend similar provisions for the growth of individual personality of the pupils in their classrooms.

Arthur Gist thus contrasts <sup>1</sup> autocratic and democratic supervision:

AUTOCRATIC	DEMOCRATIC
1. Leadership of teachers through appeal to fear of higher authority.	1. Emphasis upon harmonious supervisor-teacher coöperation.
2. Repression of interests, enthusiasms, individualities, and opinions.	2. Inspirational leadership which respects and develops the personality, abilities, and enthusiasms.
3. Emphasis upon strict rules and regulations, administered in a dictatorial and arbitrary régime.	3. Emphasis upon interests, coöperation, and helpfulness which results in a happy, pleasant régime.
4. Emphasis upon routine passiveness.	4. Emphasis upon human factors.

*Obligations as well as rights.* Democracy implies shared decisions for the general good, the subordination of the individual to the group, obligations of coöperation and loyalty as well as rights. It produces "an attitude . . . such that the actions of one are regulated in the light of a sympathetic appreciation of their significance and meaning in the lives of others."<sup>2</sup> This the supervisor needs tactfully and frequently to emphasize. Every teacher should have the right freely to contribute for

<sup>1</sup> Arthur Gist, *The Administration of Supervision*, p. 103. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1934.

<sup>2</sup> H. B. Albery and V. T. Thayer, *Supervision in the Secondary Schools*, p. 90. D. C. Heath and Co., New York, 1931.



consideration by his colleagues his ideas of how the educational program can be improved, but as a member of a coöperative responsible group he has at the same time an obligation to abide by the majority decision and to work sincerely in accord with it, at least until he can convince others that it should be changed.

Each teacher needs constantly to be helped to understand the whole approved program and how his specialized tasks can contribute most effectively to its success. As a rule, teachers are highly individualistic, each one knowing less than he should of the work of others and caring less than he ought about impingements that may be disastrous to unified accomplishment. The supervisor needs continually to emphasize the necessity of each teacher's knowing how his work contributes to the general program and how he may best coöperate to bring about the best results in the education of the pupils. His knowledge and sense of responsibility for coöperation should be made to extend beyond his fellow classroom teachers to all agents who are contributing to pupil growth—to guidance counselors, visiting teachers, health and recreation workers, nurses, librarians, and the like. The supervisor can do much good by including such agents in the common council so that all share in creating and understanding the general program, so that each appreciates the potential contribution of every other one and the necessity of constant coöperation, and so that specific responsibilities are allocated and respected.

*Creating a favorable environment.* In order that the developed educational program may be most successfully promoted the supervisor needs to create an environment in which teachers will most happily coöperate. Such an environment is both spiritual and physical. The former is effected best by the means just emphasized, a development of a democratic procedure of creating an ever-improving program and of a sense of mutual responsibility for the whole with appreciation of the interacting effects of specific assignments. The physical environment is largely outside the control of the teachers, though there is abundant evidence that individuals voluntarily do much to beautify and improve the conditions in which they work. The wise supervisor will be constantly alert to discover means of improving the physical environment, to remove annoying or seriously obstructing elements, and to influence the administra-



tion to provide labor-saving devices, helps to teaching, or merely contributions to the comfort and happiness of the teachers. He should make every effort to procure those that are requested, and it should not be overlooked that the psychological effect of getting others that the teachers have not thought to ask for is frequently worth far more in the way of appreciation and happiness than the devices cost. Supervision should "constantly shape the factors of the material environment to harmonize with the goals to be attained."

**Stimulating Growth vs. Removing Defects.**—Every individual is the sum of numerous virtues and of some defects, which Carlyle's formula represents by  $x/y$ . There are two ways of raising the value of a common fraction: increasing the numerator or decreasing the denominator. Both these means seem at first thought to be applicable to making the human being more valuable to the world, but there are many reasons for concluding that emphasis on the first is wise and usually most successful. If the numerator representing assets of strength is small, reduction of the denominator representing liabilities of weakness to approach zero results in only a small integer. Nothing is valued highly merely because it has no defects. Abundant virtues make many weaknesses of such insignificance that they are ignored or condoned. Perfection is an ideal seldom realized, even the best of men retaining some liabilities that cannot be eradicated. If one recalls those who are eminent in a community, he will find that they are successful for their virtues and that no one of them is entirely free from some defects. The teachers and the schools that one thinks of as notably outstanding are chosen because of the abundance of their virtues, not because they have been able to rid themselves of all their weaknesses. Everyone has received a letter with never a fault of spelling, punctuation, or form, but uninteresting and valueless because it was empty of the qualities that satisfy.

*Defects relatively unimportant.* In most people their defects are of minor significance. The shortcomings of teachers are seldom, except in some instances with beginners, the real cause of their failure to be effective. As a matter of fact, the making of weak assignments, faulty questioning, poor discipline, and the like are usually the result of lack of such positive virtues as understanding the meaning of education and enthusiastic



acceptance of responsibility for teaching so as to achieve approved objectives. External specific assistance may lead to superficially better assignments, questions, and discipline; but it is likely also to conceal the real cause of the difficulty, the lack of positive virtues which will make possible a real remedy for defective practices. It cannot be denied that some deficiencies in a teacher may be so serious and so disturbing that they need to be remedied instantaneously by any means possible. But such a situation is not likely to occur frequently.

*Find and promote the good.* Confucius said that "A man of noble mind seeks to perfect the good in others and not their evil." This indicates a principle that should be adopted by every supervisor: his prime business is to find the good, actual or possible, in the teachers under his direction, to make possible its exercise with the fewest restraints, and to promote its growth. The ignoble mind seeks to find defects—and it is invariably successful. It characterizes a person who is neither pleasant to be with nor eminently successful in effecting high accomplishments in himself or in others. He is a pettifogger, unhappy with himself and suspect by others. He notes a mispronounced word and cannot hear the message of eloquence; he focuses attention on a faulty brushstroke and never thrills to the masterpiece of painting; he sees a defect in dress of the singer and fails to hear the song. He is increasingly concerned with petty faults and decreasingly a promoter of eminent promising virtues. His field may be clear of weeds, but it grows no crop. He becomes a confirmed quibbler, avoided by those whom he most desires to help.

The man of noble mind, on the contrary, seeks the virtues of everyone, and his successes in finding them not only make him pleasant to work with but enable him to promote them for successful growth. The competent athletic coach seeks to find the sport in which each member of the squad can do best. He does not concern himself with the fact that this lithe youngster cannot lift and throw heavy weights, but instead he sees in him possibilities as a sprinter or a distance runner. He does not waste his efforts trying to train a mastodon to run the hundred yards under 13 seconds; he sets him at the hammer and the shot. The former boy can lift enough weight and the latter can run fast enough to satisfy their needs. They are



helped to vigor by utilizing the talents that are in them. Similarly the competent supervisor seeks to discover what every teacher can do best and he makes such assignments as are most likely to capitalize for success natural or acquired talents. Not only this, he helps teachers to grow in the exercise of their talents, knowing that when they have achieved outstanding success with them, their defects will be absorbed or can more easily be removed. And when they are ineradicable, they are likely to be overlooked by the eminence of their achievements.

It is a natural human tendency for attention to be focused on defects. It is evidence of growth toward leadership when one can subordinate them and concentrate on the discovery and promotion of promising strengths. Let every supervisor who is ambitious to achieve the highest success for the school look upon the man who cannot lift his eyes above weaknesses and take warning from the horrible example. It probably is as impossible as it is undesirable not to recognize weaknesses and defects; but if one learns that success is best achieved by the exercise of peculiar strengths he can learn to subordinate defects and to see them as relatively unimportant in the whole man or woman. He can learn, too, that growth is more important than amputation, and that there are few operations that he cannot wisely defer until the teacher gains abundant general health. All this does not mean that a supervisor should subordinate his judgment or cultivate insincerity—quite the contrary. He will see weaknesses, but he will see strengths too; he will try to help a teacher to overcome the former when results are vital, chiefly by showing how they interfere with accomplishments that are possible and highly desirable. But if he concentrates on helping a teacher exercise his peculiar strengths, he will give evidence of growth himself toward wise and competent leadership.

*Good results.* Concentration on helping teachers to do better the desirable things that they already do well or manifest most likelihood of doing better than others has inevitably a number of good results. In the first place, it tends to make happier personalities, both in the supervisor and in the teachers. The man who habitually looks for the bad becomes suspicious, carping, and pessimistic; the man who habitually seeks to find the vigorous plant or the fertile seed is a happy optimist.



The teacher who is conscious that his weaknesses are looked for by the superior who is responsible for his success becomes fearful, timid, lacking in self-confidence, and unhappy; when he knows that his supervisor is not only seeking to discover his ability and promise but also discriminatingly competent to do so, he is happy in his work, eager to demonstrate his best, receptive of suggestions, and ambitious to exert himself mightily to grow on his job. Teachers do their best work in the presence of a supervisor who is known to be looking for the good and also competent to find it. There are few stimuli more potent than recognized success. Not only are personalities happier, but personal relations cannot fail to be better. Unless they are good there can be little effectiveness of supervision.

The resulting self-confidence and self-respect in teachers are essential not only to their growth but also to their receptivity to help in growth. A teacher with an inferiority complex is ineffective in instruction and unpromising for improvement. If such a teacher is recognized as undesirable, what supervisor would wish to contribute to such a state of character by keeping to the fore the very weaknesses that must be overcome? Dynamic power is what is desired in a teacher, and that is increased and made effective only when every evidence of it is recognized and directed to work that it can best do.

Another good result of the application of this principle is that the greater the growth of a teacher in the exercise of his outstanding talents the more likely are his weaknesses to be overcome. A vigorous body eliminates minor diseases. The surgeon ligates a piece of healthy bone in a tubercular spine without troubling to scrape away the diseased tissues, knowing that they will be absorbed as the new bone grows in place. Even if the teacher who becomes highly successful in certain techniques of his work does not simultaneously rid himself of his defects of instruction, he will more readily receive and understand criticism and more easily in his acquired strength replace detailed poor practice with good.

A supervisor, then, should be constantly on the alert, both in classroom observations and in conferences, to discover what each individual teacher does best, gives promise of doing exceptionally well, and is especially ambitious to do. These talents and ambitions he should make especial effort to help the



teacher develop and to realize, knowing that the work of the teacher will be happier, that the results in achievement are likely to be greater, that growth of the teacher is more assured, and that there is a consequent probability of notable contribution to the effectiveness of the school.

A wise supervisor will so far as practicable alter the program or make special assignments to insure that each teacher has an opportunity to do what he is likely to do unusually well. There are certain duties expected of every teacher of which he cannot be relieved. But there are also others that can easily be assigned to one to perform for the group. And there are others still that can be made special assignments, either by additions to or by alterations of the normal program. It requires a certain amount of genius for a supervisor to discover unusual talents, especially when they are not developed; but his success depends very largely on the cleverness of such discovery. Provision for them is largely a matter of willingness to depart from the routine program or course of study. Neither one is so sacred or so inflexible as the administrator is usually inclined to think.

In one school the principal had a teacher of English with poor taste in literature. When visiting her classes he felt that she was continually emphasizing unimportant points and failing to give the pupils any degree of appreciation of the best. There was less likelihood of being able to improve her tastes than to utilize such talents as she possessed. He found that she had great personal influence with the pupils and that she was unusually potent as a "promoter." Endeavoring to capitalize these talents, the supervisor interested the teacher in having the pupils discuss less in class the details of literature and to substitute for the conventional type of recitation silent reading of as many good books as possible. The teacher enthusiastically undertook the project and within a short time the average number of books read by this class was nearly three times as large as by other similar groups. The pupils may have learned less of the niceties of taste than they might have done under other instruction, but it was felt that the results of the change were good: the teacher was happy in doing what she could do well; the pupils were led to begin a desirable habit; and the class became notable in the community for successful achievement in something that was unusual and desirable. Similarly



a perspicacious supervisor will make special assignments of teachers gifted in other unusual types of teaching or in directing clubs of various kinds.

*Judicious praise.* A supervisor should make it a practice to give judicious and generous praise for unusual accomplishment. He should let the teacher know, of course, his appreciation and approval of both effort and achievement, and, what is more, he should make public recognition of what has been done. The first justification of this is that effort and success deserve praise. Everyone likes to know that others, especially his superiors, judge his work successful and approve of it. With judicious praise he is likely to extend his ambition and increase his effort to merit further praise. Other teachers also are stimulated to unusual work that they too may attain eminence of some kind. And, finally, the public hearing laudatory recognition of a teacher's work thinks better of the entire educative enterprise. The head of a school should exert far more effort than he ordinarily does not only to make the public acquainted with the significance of the general program but also to counteract the all too frequent negative criticism by advertising significant successes. The supporters and patrons of a school expect it to do well the routines with which they are familiar; they become proud of it as they are acquainted with unusual achievements which they are enabled to understand and appreciate.

**Conclusion.**—The principles of supervision discussed in this chapter may not be all that should be recognized and used. But they are justified by both theory and empirical practice. They neglect details of practice, some of which are discussed elsewhere in this book, but they emphasize the foundations of successful procedure. When confronted by the challenge of eradicating obviously poor practices and of strengthening observed weaknesses, a supervisor will be inclined to defer attention to general principles and to attack the immediate and pressing problems. There is no surer way of losing oneself in details and of circumscribing one's possibilities. The sound procedure for a supervisor ambitious for growth in himself and in the teachers is first to adopt a set of general principles and on them to develop a program that will reveal relative values and give significance to everything that he attempts to do. The planned program built on fundamental principles seems



slow, but it is the only one that is likely to be progressively more successful to the assured growth of teachers in competence to direct themselves.<sup>1</sup>

### EXERCISES

1. Do you accept the definition of supervision given on pages 2 and 132? If not, what modifications of it should you like to make?
2. Using the definition of supervision that you approve, set down what it seems to you it indicates for a supervisor to do and to refrain from doing. Compare your list with the principles presented in this chapter.
3. Recall from your experience the violations by supervisors of the stated principles and tell what the effects were on you.
4. Having in mind several individual teachers that you know well, imagine what effects on each one would result from a supervisor's using or violating the principles presented on pages 132-142.
5. What difficulties do you anticipate in attempting to apply the advocated principles of supervision? How do you plan to overcome each one?
6. Prepare in outline a tentative program of supervision for a group of teachers whom you know well.
7. To what extent do you think the teachers should help to prepare such a program? Should they be made aware of it, in part or in the whole? Under what circumstances should they be influential in modifying it?
8. What uses can you effectively make of a prepared program?
9. By the definition given on page 132 can this chapter be called a contribution to the philosophy of supervision? Justify your answer.
10. What beginnings do you think can most profitably be used for developing with teachers a philosophy of education and of life?
11. Set down in writing to facilitate your own thorough thinking precisely what you believe democracy implies for supervision. Indicate what each item implies for your procedure as a supervisor in some definite situation.
12. What in the way of rights and obligations does democracy imply for teachers in their coöperation with supervision?
13. Consider thoroughly all the arguments for and against attempting to improve teachers by concentrating on their promising assets rather than on the removal of their defects. Recall several teachers whom you know well and decide what the alternative that you accept would lead you to plan to do to promote their growth in effectiveness.

<sup>1</sup> For discussion of two topics closely related to the principles of supervision see "Types of Supervision" in Chapter II and "A Principal's Relations with Teachers" in Chapter VI.



14. What are the important characteristics of the best and of the poorest teachers that you know? Which ones most account for the true successes and the real failures of these teachers? Which ones have done most to promote or to inhibit growth?

### BIBLIOGRAPHY

- H. B. Alberty and V. T. Thayer, *Supervision in the Secondary School*. D. C. Heath and Co., New York, 1931.
- Franklin Bobbitt, "Educational Science and Supervision"; S. A. Curtis, "A Philosophy of Supervision"; William H. Kilpatrick, "Democracy in Supervision," *Educational Supervision*, First Yearbook of the National Conference on Educational Method, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1928.
- Orville G. Brim, "Changing and Conflicting Conceptions in Supervision," *Educational Method*, 10:131-140, December, 1930.
- Ellsworth Collings, *School Supervision in Theory and Practice*. Thomas Y. Crowell, 1927.
- Philip W. L. Cox and R. Emerson Langfitt, *High School Administration and Supervision*. American Book Co., New York, 1934.
- Current Problems of Supervision*, pp. 8-9, Third Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1930.
- Harl R. Douglass and Charles W. Boardman, *Supervision in Secondary Schools*, pp. 23-44. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1934.
- J. M. Hughes, "Principles Underlying the Staff Organization of a High School," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 23:184-191, March, 1937.
- W. H. Kilpatrick, "Some Principles Underlying Sane Supervision in Trilogies of Theses," pp. 26 ff., *Bulletin*, Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. II, No. 1, October, 1922.
- George C. Kyte, *How to Supervise*, pp. 31-47. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1930.
- Jesse H. Newlon, "Creative Supervision in High Schools," *Bulletin* No. 25, pp. 20-31, Department of Secondary School Principals, 1929.
- Hubert W. Nutt, *Current Problems in the Supervision of Instruction*. Johnson Publishing Co., Richmond, Va., 1928.
- Raleigh Schorling, "The New and the Old in the Supervision of High School Subjects," *The University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, 3:5-7, October, 1931.
- The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, Eighth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1930.



## CHAPTER VIII

---

### PLANNING FOR SUPERVISION

---

#### THE PRINCIPAL'S RESPONSIBILITY IN PLANNING

In any field of activity planning is essential for effectiveness. In games, in politics, and in industrial management those who succeed most significantly are notable for the care with which they plan beforehand for what they do. Blindly following traditional routines or attempting to meet difficulties as they arise inevitably leads either to defeat or to a limitation of achievement which in comparison with possibilities must be called failure.

Supervision, which is for the primary purpose of stimulating and directing teachers in growth toward the ability to effect the more assured and expeditious accomplishment of the goals of education, is obviously far too important not to be planned with all the care and skill that the responsible agent has or can acquire. Without planning, a supervisor will fritter away his time and his energies in patching up observed weakness and consequently fail to build comprehensively. Even after all possible patching the educational structure may be far from adequate. Without a plan the supervisor "has no point of departure and no destination"; he cannot know the direction in which he should proceed or when he has been successful. Without a plan he confuses those with whom he works and inevitably fails to secure the maximum of their intelligent coöperation. Planning is essential to give direction to supervisory efforts, to insure that the program is comprehensive and coördinated, to effect the coöperation of the teachers, and to indicate measures of progress toward success.

**No Standard Plan Possible.**—Obviously if supervision is for the purpose of improving the work of the teachers in a given community or school, there can be no standard plan; a new one must not only be made for each situation but also continually adapted to manifested changes of all kinds. Therefore super-



visors who seek to find in the collected data regarding supervisory practices a ready-made program for themselves are doomed to disappointment; all they can reasonably hope to get will be suggestions out of which they may begin to make or improve a program suited to the peculiar demands and opportunities of the schools in which they are to work.

**An Early Tentative Plan.**—The supervisory plan cannot at any time be complete; it should never be frozen. But taking into account what he knows of the community and the school, the principal will do well in the beginning of planning to set down all that he thinks needs to be done to approach the ideals to which he professes devotion. Being assured that the details are inclusive of the whole field of education, he will organize them into major groups with appropriate subdivisions so that their relative values will be seen in their mutual contributions. In this preliminary draft he should make no compromise of his ideals with the obstructing factors, which he will necessarily take into account later. Unless he first clarifies his mind as to what ought to be done, he will wage a losing fight, often retreating when progress is not only desirable but also is entirely possible. The tentative program will need from time to time to be modified as some detail proves impracticable, as ideals change, as new conditions are revealed, and as emergencies arise. But the fact that there will come many demands and suggestions for change is a cogent reason for the existence of a tentative plan in outline, which will give significance to proposals for change and will reveal their relative importance when seen in the setting of the whole.

The more comprehensive the tentative plan for supervision, the more necessary it will be to select items for emphasis during a semester or a whole year. Obviously even an incomplete tentative plan will contain more than can possibly be achieved immediately, perhaps ever. Supervision can best be begun with attention to those phases that promise most immediate and obvious results. Every success makes possible the undertaking of more ambitious projects with appreciative coöperation on the part of the teachers. The principal will do well, too, to begin with those phases of supervision in which he feels most competent to give assistance. Whatever he plans beforehand, he should be ready to modify his plan in order to give



immediate help to urgent need or to seize upon an important opportunity that manifests itself in the teachers' work. Probably one major phase of supervision should be attempted at a time, and after that has been developed to a reasonable degree of success it can be supplemented by the introduction of another, either closely related or materially different. No supervisory activity once undertaken will ever be completed; it should continue as a part of the developing repertoire. No immediate detailed demands for help should be permitted, however, to defer for very long consideration of the meaning of education and the special functions of the school. A suggested list of topics from which selection can be made is given on pages 25-27.

#### NECESSITIES FOR THE PREPARATION OF A SUPERVISORY PLAN

**Vision.**—The first essential in preparing a supervisory plan is a vision of what education ought to be. Even a set of specifics garnered from others implies an ideal beyond practice; they may do some good, but they fail to afford either the supervisor or the teachers an understanding of what education may do for the pupils and ultimately for civilization, and they can never inflame teachers to progressive self-directed growth. But a vision of possibilities, sound and comprehensive and related to the ideals of social living, can do precisely these things. The broader and the clearer the vision of education, the more important the function of supervision will be and the more definitely it can be planned for. The vision will come from an understanding of the ideals of the society in which we live and from a perception of the possibilities of education in contributing to them. Any vision will afford some direction; as it develops and broadens it will be more and more helpful and cogent. As teachers share this vision they will be increasingly emancipated from the deadening drudgery of traditional routines. It promotes both supervisor and teachers along the road to professional growth and independence.

**A Knowledge of Possible Educational Experiences for Pupils.**—It is essential to planning a supervisory program that the principal know a great deal about the experiences that will enable pupils to develop toward individual and social competence. The term "educational experiences" is used instead of "curriculum" or "courses of study" because the latter are



so likely to suggest restriction to academic learning. Knowledge is necessary, of course, to educational development, but it is not in itself sufficient, especially when acquired in a "logical" organization largely divorced from application to the many and variable life needs. As repeatedly emphasized by modern theories of education, effectiveness in life demands more than knowledge; it demands such things also as appreciations, attitudes, and devotions, as well as skills and habits.

It cannot be expected that a principal acting as a supervisor can know all of the experiences which will most assuredly contribute to the desired objectives. But his mind should be clear as to the principles governing their selection and their organization for most assured effects on the development of youth, and these he should plan to reveal convincingly to the teachers. Moreover, he should be receptive to suggestions of novel experiences proposed by theorists or by the teachers themselves, and he should be alert by observing approved activities in the life of the community to discover experiences that can be profitably introduced into the curriculum. All proposals he will evaluate by the definition and principles of education which he possesses in terms of their probable contribution to the achievement of the vision that he has developed.

**A Knowledge of Good Teaching.**—It is essential that a principal planning a supervisory program know, too, the fundamental principles of good teaching and that he be constantly eager to add to his knowledge of effective procedures by observation, reading, and listening to suggestions from the teachers themselves. It is not likely that any principal will know all the special methods that prove effective, or even that he is cognizant of all that is best in general methods. But he is not likely to be effective as a supervisor unless he knows the fundamental principles of good teaching, which he will apply along with his understanding of the educational process to evaluating all that he observes or that is proposed. The very requirements of repeated visits to classes will enable him to cumulate a mass of highly valuable knowledge concerning concrete procedures in teaching. If he makes a practice of recording those that find approval by fundamental principles, it will not be long before he can draw from his store concrete illustrations for help in a large variety of situations.



Before undertaking supervision a principal should have been a good teacher himself and he should have studied the fundamentals of methods until he almost automatically applies them in evaluating what he observes or what he plans for the improvement of teaching. But even more important than this is his unremitting effort to learn and to apply the fundamental principles. Later in this chapter something will be said about the possibility of a supervisor's being of assistance in improving the methods and procedures of teachers in fields in which he himself is not expert or in which he may be actually an ignoramus.

**Knowledge of the Environment.**—It is essential that a principal planning a supervisory program know the community, the pupils, the teachers, and the equipment with which they must work. It is true, of course, that he can do something in the way of planning for supervision on the basis of an assumption of needs, an assumption derived from an assurance that the school is in the main similar to other schools with which he is familiar, and that therefore the teachers can be improved by a program efficacious elsewhere or promising in theory. But supervision should be custom-made and constantly adjusted to a growing body. The principal must, in consequence, accept the challenge to know intimately the environing and the active factors that affect teaching. These he must study continuously and with the best techniques that he can procure or devise. It is not sufficient merely to have general impressions.

**The Community.**—If the principal has been trained in the field of sociology, he will have learned the characteristics that are judged important in any community. Without such training he will find in the writings of sociologists some help in deciding what characteristics he should know and the means of evaluating them.<sup>1</sup> But he must rely most on himself to decide what

<sup>1</sup> For example, see the following:

Niles Carpenter, *The Sociology of City Life*. Longmans, Green and Co., 1931.

John Dollard, *Caste and Class in a Southern Town*. Yale University Press, 1937.

J. H. Kolb and E. deS. Bruner, *A Study of Rural Society*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1935.

Robert S. Lynd and Helen M. Lynd, *Middletown* (1929), and *Middletown in Transition* (1937). Harcourt, Brace and Co.

W. G. Mather, Jr., "Littletown," *Harper's Magazine*, 170:199-208, January, 1935.

James Plant, *Personality and the Culture Pattern*. Commonwealth Fund, 1937.

Jesse F. Steiner, *Community Organization*. Century Co., 1925.

Frederic M. Thrasher, *The Gang*. University of Chicago Press, 1927.

Harvey W. Zorbaugh, *The Gold Coast and the Slum*. University of Chicago Press, 1929.



knowledge about a community will probably be important in conditioning the educational program and therefore in determining what plan for supervision should be formulated. In one situation the richness or poverty of cultural environment will be paramount; in another the number and potency of competing interests; and in still another the attitude of the community toward secondary education.

There is need for the principal to learn by systematic study the local conditions, phenomena, and opportunities that should influence the educational experiences to be provided. This often-made point is entirely sound, but it is not as important for secondary schools as it appears without thorough consideration. Of course the characteristics of a locality should be used to initiate and to motivate study, and what is learned should be applied so far as possible to the satisfaction of existing or probable local needs. But the fact is obvious that there are far more likenesses between any two communities in our country than there are differences, and that therefore the great majority of needs of adolescent youth, immediate or of assured probability, are common to all communities. The conditions, phenomena, and opportunities, general or local, need to be learned and used in developing an educational and a supervisory program. The entire teaching staff, apprised of this importance, should share in making the study, partly that they may contribute more than an individual principal is likely to be able to do, and partly that through first-hand knowledge and appreciation they can be led more easily to make use of the knowledge gained.

The most important factor to be known in a community is, of course, the parents and their homes. Directly by his personal activities, if the community is reasonably small, or in larger communities through the directed activities of teachers or special agents, the principal should know the home environment of the pupils, the parents' attitude toward the school and toward secondary education in general, their ambitions for their children, their ability and willingness to help the boys and girls toward a realization of their own aspirations, what they want from the school, what they like, and what they criticize adversely. All of this knowledge can be effectively used in preparing and in modifying the supervisory program.

It must not be overlooked that the attitudes of some parents



can be modified and that a serious effort should be put forth to effect such modification. Many parents have unwise ambitions for their children. Most parents know little about the modern program of secondary education or about its underlying principles. Often teachers oppose a change in the school program on the grounds that the parents will not approve or permit it. Faced with this objection one principal personally visited 92 families, explained changes that he would like to make in the school program, and secured approval from all but two of them. When the changed attitude was reported in a meeting of the parent-teacher association, he had no difficulty in gaining approval through the superintendent from the Board of Education, and the faculty without further objection undertook to make the new program a success.

**The Pupils.**—In making a supervisory program it is fatal to assume that adjustment must be made to a mythical average or typical pupil. If anything is universally accepted by modern theory, it is that education must be adapted to individual pupils, each one with his unique combination of characteristics, some of them varying from year to year and even from day to day. Consequently in preparing and in modifying a program for supervision the principal must know as much as possible about individual pupils and he must continually seek, directly and also through the teachers, to know more. The effort will be never-ending, and it should be exerted in accord with a systematic plan which insures that no important characteristics are overlooked.

In any school reasonably up to date much valuable information will have been recorded on a record card that cumulates information progressively from entrance. Standard forms for such records are well known and widely used. On them will be recorded such important information as age, intelligence quotient, subjects studied, marks earned, normal or abnormal progress, scores on standard tests, health data, and the like. There is a strong tendency to supplement the standard records with anecdotes which reveal much that is or may become significant about the pupil's attitudes and character traits. Every principal should systematically study the records of the pupils or should have assistants, preferably the teachers, do this for him. And he should use the data concerning individuals



and groups to indicate many of the more important parts of his supervisory program.

Data about individual pupils other than that on the standard cumulative record card will be needed also. No pupil can be understood without knowledge of his environment, especially of his home. What are its cultural advantages and deficiencies? Is a foreign language spoken there? What understanding of the pupil and sympathy with him do the parents have? What are their attitudes toward the school, its parts as well as its whole? What are their ambitions for their child? Does the home afford a quiet place for study? Does it provide a library of books and magazines, newspapers, and other materials of educative potentialities? Does it encourage hobbies and provide for their continuance and extension? These and other similar questions about every youth's environment need to be answered before the principal can adequately plan to lead teachers into providing better education for him.

Studies directed by the principal should be made by the teachers, especially by those in charge of the home rooms, of every pupil's attitudes, not only toward the courses of study and the school, but also toward life in general. An individual to be taught successfully, must be understood, and someone in whom he has confidence should undertake to win his confidences. It may be wise to use one of the personal adjustment questionnaires, though all demand such intimate information that if used by a teacher without understanding and sympathy they may be dangerously offensive.

The desired information should also concern a pupil's interests and curiosities, which are embryonic interests, both being not only indicative of possibilities for profitable extension and direction, but also means of motivating other activities. To understand a pupil the school should know his extra-curricular activities in the school and what he does in them, his recreational and social activities outside the school, and his work experiences. Many pupils are required to do work, either at home or for others, with or without pay, to such an extent that there is serious interference with their studies. Very seldom does anyone make systematic effort to see that the work experiences become educative, as the school can without undue effort do if it knows what the duties and requirements are.



By interpretation to the pupils they can usually be made educative in themselves; they can be correlated with school studies; and they can be used as powerful motivations.

Studies should also be undertaken to reveal study and classroom activities, deficiencies, and promising successes. Diagnostic tests will frequently indicate the causes of ineffective study, some of the most common of which are poor or misunderstood assignments, a lack of necessary fundamental knowledge or skills, an inadequate place or insufficient time for study, and an inability to read adequately. Classroom activities that should be noted and explained are such as the amount and kind of attention given, participation in the recitation, questions asked, command of language expression, special manifested abilities—such as clearness of explanation, richness or novelty of illustration, neatness of boardwork, and the like—and behavior that reflects character traits. Any supervisor can add to this list other items, a knowledge of which is desirable or essential when preparing a program to improve the effectiveness of individual instruction.

All such data concerning an individual pupil need to be combined by someone, either the principal or his representative, so that a fairly complete picture is had of the pupil to be educated. It is not sufficient to collect raw data, to combine them into tables with medians and measures of dispersal. All raw data need to be interpreted in the light of everything else known about the pupil and the school. Then the principal can get for himself and be able to give to the teachers an understanding of each individual so that an effective coöperative plan can be developed for the peculiar type of education suited to his interests, capacities, aptitudes, and needs, both immediate and probably assured in the future.

**The Teachers and Their Teaching.**—In making a promising supervisory program the principal needs to know as much as possible about the teachers under his direction, both individually and as a group. If he is new in the school he will doubtless find many data on file, some in letters of application for positions and others in the records kept by the superintendent or the preceding principal. From such sources and elsewhere he will learn of the age, the preparation, academic and professional, and the previous experience. But for teachers who have been



long in service the data on early preparation will be entirely inadequate: the critical information needed is how these teachers have grown and what are their present knowledge of facts and of the principles of education, their attitudes, and their practices. Although it is essential that the supervisor know the teachers as individuals, his general program for improving instruction will be largely influenced by what the teachers are as a group. If they are fairly homogeneous with respect to such characteristics as have been mentioned, obviously the supervision, especially in teachers meetings, can to a large extent safely be for the entire group. The more variation there is in preparation, age, experience, and competence, the more individual the supervision will need to be.

There is much needed information about the teachers that is not on record. The supervisor will want to know, for example, the extent to which each teacher has continued his education—by further formal study, the nature of which should be learned, or by informal study motivated by interest and by an impelling desire to grow in competent effectiveness. Several cities require periodic reports of “alertness” as evidenced by study, travel, and the like; but the principal will need to go beyond the record and learn what the effects are, whether that which has been learned is being translated into improved teaching. Merely having studied or traveled is not sufficient. He will doubtless find many means of increasing the use of what has been learned if he knows just what that is.

The supervisor will want to know, too, something of each teacher's interests and activities that are not required by the school. The interests that occupy a teacher's leisure time and that lead into hobbies, intellectual as well as other kinds, reveal not only much of the real person but also opportunities for capitalization for the improvement of teaching. The direction, especially that which is self-initiated, of extra-curricular activities and the social and other contacts of the teacher in the community should be known, for they often reveal a fertile field for supervision leading to enriched instruction. The teachers who by nature are most interested in the personal difficulties, problems, and ambitions of pupils should be sought and then both encouraged and aided to give such advice and guidance to individuals as they need.



Probably the most important single piece of information that the principal will need to have concerns each teacher's attitudes toward life, toward his fellow teachers, toward teaching, toward his work in the school, toward the pupils, and toward supervision and other means of professional growth. If these attitudes are bad, attempts at supervision will start under a serious handicap. The sooner supervision can help the teacher to some definite, even to some spectacular success, which should be judiciously advertised, the more likely an improvement in receptivity to other help. A supervisor seeking information about attitudes will do well to be on his guard against believing or even listening to gossip, however soundly based it may be. It will be much better to enter upon his supervisory program with an assumption that all attitudes are good or, at worst, neutral, and then to make such adjustments as may seem necessary by revealed hostility or skepticism. When a person is helped to succeed, his attitude toward the one who helps him and to his whole environment is likely to become better. Closely related to attitudes are personal peculiarities—such as timidity, fear, pride, aloofness, and independence—that need to be known and taken into consideration. Teachers who are ambitious, openminded, receptive of help, and eager to experiment along suggested lines are the supervisor's most fertile opportunity.

In order to plan his supervisory program intelligently the principal will want to know how successful each teacher has been and is. He can learn much from studying the past records of success and failure of pupils, not only in the teacher's own classes but subsequently in advanced classes in the same subject. Even the percentage of his pupils who are made to care enough for a subject to elect advanced courses is revealing. The principal should also have administered standard achievement tests and diagnostic tests, especially those made by the teachers under his direction, to reveal the specific mastery and deficiencies of pupils. A study of the results will often yield highly valuable information as to where supervisory help is most needed or promises to yield the greatest returns. But nothing will take the place of the essentials: continued careful, first-hand observation of the teacher's work directly with pupils and subsequent conferences in which the teacher is both permitted and encouraged to discuss his own procedures, difficulties, and plans



for the future. In both observation and conference the supervisor should be especially on the lookout for the activities that the teacher shows promise of doing exceptionally well.

Although, as argued at length elsewhere, supervision finds its most fertile field in encouraging and developing promising qualities, teachers are most likely to ask for help to do better the things that they recognize they are doing badly. There are other means besides those already mentioned by which a principal can learn of a teacher's special needs, especially techniques that supplement and give a degree of objectivity to observation. The more important of these are discussed in various books and magazine articles. A good first reading by the supervisor is *Scientific Method in Supervision*,<sup>1</sup> especially Leo J. Brueckner's Chapter II, "Developments in the Techniques of Securing Factual Data concerning Classroom Teaching," which contains a bibliography. The Third Yearbook of the same Department contains the following helpful chapters: II. "Supervisors' Reports of Daily Problems Presented by Teachers"; III. "Teachers' Reports of Needed Supervisory Assistance"; IV. "Teachers' Reports of the Most Important Problems Needing Supervisory Assistance"; V. "Teachers' Reports of the Best Help Received"; VI. "Supervisors' Reports of Problems Attacked on Their Own Initiative"; VII. "Supervisors' Reports of Problems Presented by Others than Teachers."

**Building, Equipment, and Supplies.**—In planning the supervisory program the principal needs to know and to take into consideration the possibilities and the limitations of the physical equipment with which the teachers have to work. The classrooms may be too large or too small, the furniture unsuited, and the supplies inadequate for the kind of teaching that his ideal approves. There may be large halls for policed but undirected study, and the library may have too few or unsuitable books for the progressive curriculum. It is easy to enumerate in almost any school a long list of physical limitations. But those that he cannot improve the supervisor is challenged to make the best possible use of in the educational

<sup>1</sup> The Second Yearbook of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929.



program that he is developing. When thus challenged, many principals have manifested the greatest ingenuity, a complete account of which would stimulate everyone who is irked by similar limitations. The competent principal while bending every effort to have the physical environment improved leads the teachers to make the best of what they have.

Study halls may be put in charge of honor pupils, thus freeing a teacher to give individual help. The library may be run to a large extent by pupils, who will also under direction prepare indexes, charts, and displays. There are few schools that would not be vastly improved if the pupils were thoroughly taught how to use reference books and if the teachers systematically utilized to the maximum such materials as are available. Inspector George H. Reavis, of the Ohio State Department of Education, considers a teacher's use of the library the most important single criterion in judging of successful instruction. Laboratory and shop equipment can be supplemented from the homes and even from junk heaps. Much valuable teaching can be obtained from the men and women of the community. In Deerfield, Massachusetts, Principal Boyden, once without home economics equipment, had the girls taught cooking and housekeeping by the mothers in their own homes. Only when a principal in planning and in supervising has made the most of the physical plant and supplies which he has does he deserve to get improvements.

### PLANNING MEANS TO USE IN SUPERVISION

**Group Meetings.**—Having decided on the purposes of supervision and selected the problems to which he plans to give especial attention during the year, the principal will need to consider the means he can use.<sup>1</sup> The most important of them all is the series of meetings of teachers, either the entire faculty or groups homogeneous with respect to interests, needs, and advancement in professional growth. In these meetings the principal will attempt to integrate the corps primarily by developing agreement on the meaning of education and the special functions of the school and of the subjects. The larger the group in which these and other similar fundamental matters can be

<sup>1</sup> All of the means mentioned in this section will be discussed at length in later chapters.



discussed so that all have a part or at least understand and approve the concepts arrived at, the more economical the preparation for later individual supervision will be. It is in group meetings that the groundwork is done for constructive work on the curriculum and methods of teaching. Great benefit can be derived from committees that consider special problems and report to the faculty their recommendations with supporting reasons.

**Conferences.**—Supplementing group meetings and carrying general principles to the work of the individual teachers are the supervisory conferences. In these the principal after visiting one or more recitations discusses with the teacher what he has observed, seeks to relate fundamental concepts and principles to the problems and challenges found, and plans with the teacher for effective professional growth. As argued elsewhere in this book, the conference is not primarily to point out faults in teaching and to indicate means of overcoming them, but rather to help each teacher to develop to greater effectiveness the activities in which he promises to be outstandingly successful.

**Demonstration Lessons.**—In meetings of large or small groups of teachers the principal can effectively use as a supervisory means discussions of demonstration lessons, which have been carefully prepared and presented to illustrate techniques to which attention needs to be directed. There is no good reason why demonstration teaching should not be used as freely with secondary as with elementary school teachers. An economical and a fairly satisfactory substitute is a mimeographed summary of a lesson or a stenographic report of an entire procedure. For most people theory is likely to remain abstract unless illustrated in concrete demonstration.

**Other Means of Supervision.**—Other means of supervision are occasional bulletins in which observed good work is reported and suggestions of various kinds given; suggested reading of professional books or magazine articles, to which exact references are made and for which the purposes are definitely and convincingly stated; directed visits to observe other teachers' work that is known to be superior in the techniques in which the observing teachers are attempting to improve themselves; study in carefully selected courses offered in extension or in summer schools; and institutes or lectures that are so carefully



planned as to be of assured value in helping the teachers with their specific problems.

**Experimentation.**—The principal should encourage teachers to undertake experiments, which, if he is competent, he can so direct that the measured results will convince everyone of the procedures that are superior. If he does not feel himself competent and does not have the time to learn the techniques of planning simple scientific experiments and of carefully measuring the results, he may find some teacher on the staff who has had sufficient training or he can procure the assistance of an expert on a college staff. The principal can in any situation give oversight to insure that the proposed plan and techniques are convincing to common sense, which is the primary essential in any experimentation.

**A Testing Program.**—Every supervisor today must himself be able to teach teachers to use standard and diagnostic tests and to interpret their results, or at least he must see to it that someone else gives the necessary instruction and training. Whether expert in tests or not, a sensible principal can give material assistance in seeing that test results are studied until there is learned what is indicated for modified procedures in the program. Inasmuch as there are not available tests that measure many things in which the school is interested, teachers need help in learning to make fairly valid and reliable tests of the new types. They will especially need original diagnostic tests, the results of which can be interpreted only by careful, but not difficult, study and analysis. More people can now make and give good tests than can interpret and use the results. The principal should plan to make the use of test results an important part of his supervisory program.

**The Supervisor an Expert.**—Whatever means of supervision the principal plans to use he should master. To gain and keep the professional respect of the teachers he will need to be expert in the techniques that he uses, as he expects the teachers to be or to become expert in their peculiar techniques. In all of his work he will not forget that he is seeking to find what each teacher can do best and to help him learn to do it better, that he is to recognize and in some way to reward success and even serious effort, that he is to encourage, and that he is to stimulate and direct to growth in power. His ambition should be to make



each teacher competent and eager to work coöperatively on the same level with him to promote the efficiency of the school.

### ORGANIZING AND ADMINISTERING FOR SUPERVISION

As repeatedly emphasized in this book, organization and administration, in which principals are ordinarily successful, have no meaning except as they facilitate the educational processes. Both can forward the supervisory program or can materially hamper it. Especially when the direct supervision is not the concern of the principal it is sometimes difficult for him to appreciate that it is desirable and even necessary for the good of the educational program to disturb the administrative routine to which he has become comfortably accustomed. In one instance a supervisor could not get fixed seats rearranged so that the teacher could have convenient access to the desks in order to direct the study of the individual pupils.

**Assignment of Teachers.**—When supervision has accepted the principle that its most profitable field is to help teachers grow in those things in which each one manifests the greatest promise of success, it is highly important that the assignments to work should keep this in mind. Of course there are limitations of the possibility, especially in small schools. But if the principal has successfully discovered what certain teachers are doing exceptionally well and what he thinks they can be stimulated and helped to do even better, suitable assignments should be made at almost any sacrifice of convenience. It is better to have outstandingly successful work by half the teachers than to have conventionally acceptable work by all of them. Distinguished success by one teacher motivates others to emulation.

The exigencies of the program sometimes seem to necessitate that teachers undertake work for which they are not adequately prepared. But it is not always necessary that the work in question be given. When M. B. Hillegas was Commissioner of Education in Vermont he insisted that the curricula should be modified in small schools so that the teachers available should present what they knew best. In consequence, one school offered a course in geology when the general program called for biology; another school offered world history, in which a teacher had specialized, instead of the usual history of Europe. Even when such departures from the program are not feasible,



the principal can do much, especially in the selection of new teachers, to make possible the assignment to work for which there is competence and in which there is unusual interest and promise of successful growth.

Some teachers work best with the younger pupils, others with those who are more matured; some have sympathy and infinite patience for success with the dull, others the understanding and intellectual keenness to promote development of the gifted; some are better in mass instruction, and others in using ingenious devices to make possible a highly individualized program even in classes of normal size. It stands to reason that the greater success of the school is dependent in large measure, therefore, on assigning each teacher to the work which he can do best and in which he manifests the greatest promise of growth to unusual success. Attention to assignments will often change the emphasis in supervision from remedial to promotive work.

**Assignment of Pupils.**—Similarly the assignment of pupils needs careful attention. It is easy in a large school to list the pupils alphabetically and send each successive group of the necessary number to different teachers, but the practice cannot be approved by the universal theoretical emphasis on provision for individuals. It is generally recognized that there are personal likes and dislikes, not always explicable and certainly not always justified, that facilitate or inhibit learning by one person from another. Sometimes it may be wise for the principal to explain to a pupil that, inasmuch as it will often be necessary for him in life to get along with a superior whom he does not like, he has an opportunity to develop the desired skills by being in the class of a teacher to whom he has become hostile. But without subsequent and repeated help from someone else who is sympathetic with him, the exercise is not likely to be successful. There is far more probability of his developing normally and happily under another teacher whom he already likes or toward whom he is at least neutral in his feelings.

Other principles of assigning pupils are obvious. Every effort should be made to place each one where he is most likely to be happy and to get the peculiar attention that his characteristics indicate as desirable. In some instances he should be assigned to a class in which his close friends are; in others, to a group in which he will make wider and more varied acquaintances for the



development of his social self; in others still, to a class in which he will find it possible to maintain self-respect by doing as well as others no more gifted than he. In this matter guidance on the basis of carefully cumulated data is of high importance, guidance to the administrator as well as to the pupils.

**Provision of Materials.**—The principal who endeavors to promote the educational program of a school will make a careful and continuous study of the teachers' needs of materials, not only books, maps, and equipment for shops and laboratories, but also those unusual materials of which his professional training and experience have made him aware. Teachers are fertile in their requests for supplementary aids, all of which should be sympathetically as well as critically considered. Even when the principal is not entirely convinced of the necessity, he should secure the desired materials if possible, partly because the teacher will be happier and challenged to make effective use of them, and partly because every manifested professional interest should be encouraged.

It will not be sufficient, however, for the principal merely to wait for requests from the teachers. After carefully studying the work of each teacher he can often suggest materials that can profitably be used to improve the instruction. These suggestions will grow out of his previous experience, his observation of the work in other schools, his study of exhibits of educational materials and of catalogs, and his informal or formal conferences with fellow supervisors. When he procures material that teachers have not specifically requested, he has an obligation, of course, to show its possibilities and to help them in learning its successful use.

Equipment inevitably suggests the limitations of the budget. No budget is likely to be increased until the school has made a request for additional appropriations and has convincingly supported it. This is the responsibility of the principal. Money will as a rule be found when the need is made manifest. Not infrequently when the desired money cannot be made available in the budget, at least some of it can be obtained from public-spirited friends of education in the community. Funds are often raised by the pupils themselves from entertainments of various kinds. The boys and girls in a number of schools have



manifested great ingenuity and industry in making highly useful materials out of scrap of little or no value in itself.

**Minimizing the Machinery.**—Administration invites the invention of machinery, which not infrequently becomes complicated, an end in itself, and cumulatively irritating to the teachers. Every principal ought periodically to review the machinery of administration and ruthlessly eliminate those details that are not necessary to facilitate the educational program. Henry Ford is reported to have saved tens of thousands of dollars by discarding from his car one bolt that was found to be unessential. The principal should also challenge himself to devise means of making the administrative machinery run so smoothly that it seldom calls attention to itself. He also should periodically explain to the teachers, especially to those who have manifested irritation, the necessity of each detail, how it contributes to making their work possible and easier.

**Improving the Discipline.**—Few things are more notable in the recent development of secondary schools than the improved behavior of the pupils. In the great majority of classrooms they are as orderly and as attentive as college students. As a matter of fact, it has often been stated with a large amount of justification that the behavior of youth in school is today superior to their behavior outside. But there are exceptions, even in the best schools, and these exceptions often demand the principal's attention. Ordinarily a strong teacher can take care of the challenge, especially when supported by other school agencies. Often when the misbehavior is persistent, the teacher is at fault, either because of a weak personality or because he has not made his instruction of convincing value to the boys and girls. Whatever the cause, however, the teaching will obviously be less effective than possible when the pupils are mischievous and inattentive.

On occasion the principal will need to administer correction, but that is external and often of temporary value. He should seek the cause and attempt to remove that. Sometimes it will be wise to assign a troublesome pupil to another teacher or, for the good of the school, to refuse him the privilege of taking work to which he will not devote himself seriously. Sometimes a frank appeal for coöperation will be effective. But the most important means of improving the behavior in a school is help



to the teachers to make their instruction so good that the pupils will want it. If the principle elsewhere discussed <sup>1</sup> of making the purpose of each recitation unit so clear and convincing to the pupils that they accept it as their own is consistently followed, the majority of behavior problems will be trivial. Misbehavior is not infrequently an intelligent protest against drudgery at something that seems not worth doing.

### WHY PRINCIPALS DO NOT SUPERVISE

Although there is general agreement that principals should devote the major part of their energies to the improvement of instruction, numerous studies report that they do not do so. Challenged constantly by the demands of administration and by other matters that seem imperative though they are not of importance professionally, principals usually are busy men; it is rare that one of them loafs on his job. So great is the pressure of other duties that they allow the obstacles to loom larger than they really are. This section will consider the chief obstacles to supervision and suggest some means of overcoming them. Even a principal who does some teaching can utilize the suggestions profitably.

**No Traditional Demand for Supervision by a Principal.**—Supervision as an active responsibility of a principal of a secondary school is relatively new even in theory. There is so little awareness by the public of its need and of its possibilities that a principal is seldom criticized for failure to carry on an effective supervisory program. His success is usually judged by different criteria: if he proves himself personally acceptable, if he is industrious, if he “has the school in hand,” and if the extra-curricular activities are pleasing to the community, he usually keeps his job. Even superintendents as a rule neither encourage nor demand supervision. And many teachers, as will be indicated presently, are quite content to be let alone to do their work as they think best.

In the face of this obstacle a principal planning to improve a school through supervision has to make a case for it—first with the superintendent, then with the teachers, and ultimately with the public. Every principal should so exert himself that his successor will not dare neglect such an important profes-

<sup>1</sup> See Chapter XII.



sional function. To the superintendent and the Board of Education he can reveal the need and propose a general program for helping the teachers grow on their jobs so that the work of the school will continuously improve. He will especially emphasize the need for coöperative unity and constructive help. But his strongest argument will be the effectiveness of the work that he actually does. The less he talks to the teachers about what he plans to do, the better. And he will be wise to give a proper publicity to the success of the program. He should keep the superintendent constantly informed of his program and especially of the results that indicate improvement of the school, and he should not neglect to make the teachers by various becoming means aware of the successes that they have achieved. The more that is known of the good results of supervision, the more the obstacle of indifference will be broken down.

**Opposition by Some Teachers.**—A great many teachers undoubtedly are for various reasons opposed to supervision. Some, especially the experienced and the “successful,” are complacently satisfied to go on teaching much as they have taught in the past. Lacking a vision of what they might do on higher levels, they lack also professional ambition. They have no sense of need of help. Satisfied with the curriculum and the methods that they use, they are fearful of the new. Such teachers are by no means in the majority, but they are commonly enough found to present a real obstacle. Along with them may be noted those who recognize that they are less effective than they might be and are therefore fearful lest supervision discover their weaknesses and cause them to lose their positions.

Many teachers have had no experience whatever with supervision and in consequence are suspicious of it. Others have had experiences with it that they consider poor, tactless, or ineffective, and therefore they are hostile. Others still are fearful lest supervision hamper their proper professional freedom and prevent them from using the ingenuity and inventiveness of which they are capable. And many know that the principal is incompetent in the special fields in which they are specialists. The opposition of all such teachers results, of course, from their failure to understand what good supervision is and its possibilities. This opposition can be broken down not by lectures and explanations, but by modest beginnings of real helpfulness.



When teachers recognize that the principal is endeavoring to discover not their weaknesses but their skills and potentialities, when they find their freedom encouraged and directed and their ingenuity applauded, when they realize real help in developing each his peculiar powers, and when they are made conscious of an increasing professional unity in the staff, not only will they cease to be suspicious or hostile; they will even prove embarrassing by their demands for more help. Consciousness of success and of growth is the greatest stimulus to professional ambition.

**Lack of Time.**—The more competent and ambitious a person is, the more he will lack time to do his job as he knows it ought to be done. The incompetent and ineffective also think themselves overworked. Following are some practical suggestions for finding an increased amount of time for supervision:

1. In the first place, before school begins the principal should make a schedule that provides time specifically for supervision. He should post it in a conspicuous place in his office and not only respect it himself but have others respect it. If a principal is scheduled to teach a class at a given hour, he will usually find it possible to drop other matters that are demanding his attention or to defer them to a later period; he does not hesitate to excuse himself from a caller, be it even the superintendent; he keeps the appointment because he is scheduled and others are dependent on him. Is supervision any the less important than teaching? Is it not more important to help teachers so that they may be more effective for all their pupils than it is to help a single class in a single period? There is no expectation of the impossible ideal that a schedule for supervision can be kept absolutely inviolate. But it will strengthen a principal to do on time what he has recognized as of paramount importance; every departure from it will need convincing justification to his professional conscience, which if it is strong enough will cause him subsequently to make up the time. When teachers know the schedule and appreciate what is done in the reserved time, they will increasingly respect it and make fewer demands that will result in its violation.

2. An apparently trivial but actually an important suggestion is that the principal leave an absolutely clean desk when he quits his office at the end of every day. Everyone is familiar with the desk top piled high with miscellaneous materials,



but few are aware of the nervous tension that it engenders. The owner may "know where every paper and book is" and he may have plans for using them all, but when he enters his office in the morning he is faced with the miscellany that he knows he cannot get at—immediately, if ever. He is handicapped at the start by a challenge that he cannot meet, by confusion, and by a sense of futility. His first task with the fresh strength that should be devoted to better things is the menial job of clearing away a space in which to work. Each paper that he picks up diverts his attention from what he has intended to do. The cluttered desk dictates to him; he is no longer master of the situation. It is worth remembering that the most efficient executives in business always have a clean desk. They get whatever they need for the work in hand, and when that is finished the desk is clean again and they can decide what to take up next.

What shall one do at the end of the day with what is on the desk and unattended to? The answer is easy: it doesn't much matter so that it is got off the top of the desk! It may be filed, put in a drawer out of sight, or piled on another desk, whence any of it may be recovered at need. Most of it will never be used; it might as well go in the waste-paper basket at once as eventually. If it is piled away, inevitably there will come a time, perhaps on a Sunday or a holiday, which should be better used, when the harassed owner cleans house and recklessly throws away the accumulations that he knows he will never use. A little judgment of values day by day would diminish the periodic housecleaning. The more orderly a man is, the more matters he is likely to attend to. But the best result of taking the advice here offered is that a man can dictate to himself every morning what he will undertake; his judgment is undisturbed by the challenge of material disorder. Incidentally it may be remarked that a roll-top desk with pigeon-holes for filing is almost as bad as a littered flat-top desk. The disturbing and challenging materials still clamor for attention. And whoever saw a set of pigeon-holes that were not stuffed with a long-neglected miscellany which will never be used? If one hasn't the courage to give away a roll-top desk to a person against whom he has a grudge, he should at least have a small table at which to do his effective work.



3. Every principal should learn to work expeditiously. As Buddha said, "If anything is to be done, let it be done vigorously." One advantage of having a schedule is that one learns to appreciate the necessity of doing a piece of work on time. Most people fall into the habit of giving to many jobs more time than they need and far more than they deserve. Everyone should learn to estimate quickly whenever a new matter comes up approximately how much time should be given to it, and then he should attempt to dispose of it without apparent haste in the time allotted. An appreciation of relative values is a tremendous time saver.

Anyone can learn to work expeditiously when he works alone; complication arises when other people are involved, people who have not learned expeditiously to get through the matter in hand so that they can get on to another and who for various reasons estimate it as of more importance than it actually may be. When other people come to him with their problems a principal should listen attentively, only interrupting to ask such questions as are necessary, until they begin to repeat, as sooner or later most of them do, or to add irrelevant details. He should then summarize the problem to insure the caller that he understands it thoroughly, and either give his decision or state what he will do to arrive at one. Most conferences extend to unnecessarily wasteful lengths. Of course there are occasions when a principal must for purposes of tact or diplomacy give more time to a conference than it actually deserves. But ordinarily he can bring one to a satisfactory and speedier close than would be possible without learning to be expeditious.

A principal should learn, too, not to worry about a decision after he has made it. Most problems have several solutions that are good, rather than one good and all the others bad. It is wiser to make promptly a decision that is fairly satisfactory and go on to the next one than to take an inordinate amount of time coming to a conclusion that may not be materially better. And unless there are strong reasons for reopening the matter, one should stick to a decision that is not bad and thus save time for more important matters. Reflection on a group of decisions for profitably learning what to do in the future is, of course, wise. But not futile worry about what has been done. William Gillette once gave this good advice, "Don't



do anything until you do it; and having done it, stop doing it." Expedition can save a lot of time for supervision.

4. Especially can one learn to save time in performing necessary routine. Even the lay-out of the office can often be improved so as to make for economy.<sup>1</sup> Carefully prepared forms will economically take care of many recurrent matters. A principal should jot down in a notebook as they occur to him memoranda of things that he wants to do and then provide for them in his schedule rather than attempting to do each one at once.

5. Every principal should have adequate clerical service to take care of matters that do not require his professional attention. Whatever the stringency of the budget, it should not be difficult to make a convincing argument for one or more clerks. It should be sufficient to show to the superintendent an itemized list of activities that have to be performed by the principal, the highest paid employee in the school, to manifest the economy of having them done equally well by a clerk who can be procured for a fraction of the salary. A wise superintendent will want to know on what the principal thus relieved will spend his time, and the answer should be a carefully prepared general program for supervision. Adequate clerical help does not insure supervision, but it does make it possible. In one large secondary school the principal had three assistants and a head clerk with four subordinates. Their duties were meticulously listed in a book—answering the telephone, responsibility for the lunch-room, the keys, conduct in the corridors, absence and tardiness, schedule-making, the record system, and the like, down to the last detail; but not one single item pertained to the improvement of instruction. To insure that the clerical service is effective the principal must give preliminary training or see that it is given. He has a moral obligation to use the time freed to him by utilizing it for the more important responsibilities of his position.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> For a list of practical suggestions see Edgar G. Stanton, "Saving Time in Office Routine," *Elementary School Journal*, 28:263-272, December, 1927.

<sup>2</sup> Data concerning clerical assistance in secondary schools will be found in *Administration and Supervision*, Monograph 11 of the National Survey of Secondary Education, pp. 84-101 and 134-135, notes.

See also W. C. Reavis and Robert Woellner, "The Time and Personnel Available for Administrative Duties in Secondary Schools," *School Review*, 36:576-592, October, 1928.



6. A principal can often save time for supervision by delegating some of his administrative duties to teachers and even to pupils. A few of these can be formally assigned to teachers as a part of their scheduled duties. In most schools selected teachers can quite satisfactorily take care in their home rooms of absence, tardiness, and minor matters of discipline. In almost every school there are one or more teachers who because of their professional ambition, their interest, or the prestige that it would give them are eager to take over some of the duties ordinarily performed by the principal. Care should be taken that the teachers who are thus used do not feel that they are being imposed upon, that they appreciate the uses the principal makes of the time saved for him, and that they be adequately helped to learn to perform the assigned duties satisfactorily. They should be given authority along with every responsibility and generous credit for their successes. Of course the principal must exercise oversight and must assume full responsibility for any mistakes that they may make.

The use of pupils to take care of certain routine and clerical matters will save some time that the principal may use in supervision, and it may be justified on this basis. Its fundamental justification, however, should be in the educative values to the pupils themselves of the tasks that they are set to perform, and both they and their parents should have an understanding of this fact. The assumption of responsibility in the school and learning to carry obligations successfully under direction will undoubtedly prove of significant educational value, preparing for the demands of life outside the school. The increase of *esprit de corps* as a result of accepted responsibility and service is an important result.<sup>1</sup>

7. An important reason why principals have difficulty in finding time for supervision is their own lack of appreciation of its value. A principal must be thoroughly convinced in his own mind that his major responsibility is the improvement, directly or indirectly, of the instruction in the school or he will never find the time for it. He must know that organization and administration are important only as they facilitate instruction.

<sup>1</sup> For a list of duties to which pupils may be assigned, see Dorothy M. Sass, "Students' Service in the High School," *School Review*, 33:661-670, November, 1925.



He must recognize that general planning and unending work with the teachers individually and in groups are of all his duties paramount.

8. Nor is a principal likely to find time to supervise if he is lacking in confidence of his ability to do it with effectiveness. A person always finds time, whatever the other demands on him, to do what he can do well. When he is doubtful of his own competence to supervise he can without difficulty find an unending succession of reasons why he does not undertake it. When a principal spends his time patrolling the corridors, keeping order in a study hall, filing records, or being social he unconsciously advertises that he thinks himself a competent policeman, clerk, or host. Without effort to learn to be effective as a supervisor a principal abdicates as a professional educational leader. But anyone who is fit to be a principal can learn, at least to a degree, to supervise, and if he is ambitious and conscientious to justify his position, he will attempt to do so.

**Supervision in Special Fields.**—One objection that is frequently voiced, especially by teachers who have had no experience with the right kind of supervision, is that “no principal is competent to tell me, a specialist, how to do my work.” This manifests an erroneous conception of what supervision should be. It implies that the supervisor should tell a teacher exactly what to do, whereas it is his primary responsibility to help the teacher to discover and to use means for growth in effectiveness. If one will consider all the means for supervision listed in any modern treatment of the subject, he will find that the great majority can be used with effectiveness by a supervisor who does not know the first syllable of the subject presented by the teacher to be helped. Certainly a principal is competent to evaluate with a teacher the purposes sought in a recitation and to judge in most cases the consistency with which they are sought and the degree to which they are achieved; certainly any supervisor is competent to stimulate teachers to adapt their work toward the objectives of education and toward the special functions of the school approved by the entire staff; and certainly any supervisor can increase the unity of effort in the entire staff. There is a certain degree of danger in a supervisor’s having superior knowledge in a special field, for knowing more than the teachers he may be inclined to tell them how to proceed



rather than to work to help them discover the best procedures and thus to grow in power to grow.

Although ignorant in a special field, a supervisor is not entirely incompetent to judge of its teaching, for there are general methods that are everywhere applicable, and common sense can often get the specialist teacher to help make a fairly accurate evaluation. But even though this be true, it must not be emphasized that teacher-rating is the supervisor's important responsibility. He makes evaluations in order to know where help is needed and where effort to promote growth is most likely to be profitable.

9. The final obstacle to finding time for supervision is a lack of will on the part of the principal to persist in devoting the major part of his energies to the task that his judgment has selected as the most important. This is essentially a matter of morality—having the “will to do” what one knows he ought to do. There is no outside force to give aid here comparable to the drive that comes from the kind of character a supervisor should have.

### INITIATING THE PROGRAM

Having outlined a supervisory program that seems justified by the ideals that he has in mind and having the general plan approved by the superintendent, the principal is challenged to put it into effect. In preparation he should remember that his program is tentative, to be modified by revealed conditions and especially by the attitudes and the advice of the teachers. He should constantly keep in mind, too, that the program must be constructive, always emphasizing growth toward the ideal by utilizing to the full the competencies of the staff rather than its defects to be remedied.

Where supervision has not previously been practiced with effectiveness manifest to the teachers, it is well to begin unostentatiously with no announcement of what is intended. A few helps in specific cases to individual teachers are likely to clear away such latent opposition as might develop. After the principal has visited numerous classes and learned thus and from talks with teachers and pupils much of the work of the school, he is ready to lay before the staff several problems and possibilities as he sees them. From discussion in a general meeting the teachers in all probability will be willing, if not eager, to select one or more for coöperative study leading to improved



teaching. In the presentation and in the discussion the principal should take pains not be to adversely critical of what he has observed of practice in the school. If possible, he will influence the teachers to select for the first attack a problem that is not so large or so complex as to preclude the early arrival at a definite and satisfactory solution. Later when the professional spirit and ambition have developed sufficiently, larger problems may be more profitably considered.

The major work of supervision will be done in the teachers meetings. There general principles are presented and, with or without modification, approved; there the ideals for the school are agreed on; there the problems for concerted attack are selected; and there reports are made by both principal and teachers of progress made and of difficulties met. Following the work in teachers meetings the principal will devote much time to individual conferences, in which after reviewing and clarifying previous agreements he will give such stimulus and help as each teacher seems to need, and he will supplement both general meetings and individual conferences with such other supervisory means as seem promising of success.

### EXERCISES

1. Ascertain with as much definiteness as possible the ideas that the superintendent in your community has for improving instruction in the secondary school. What obligations does his program lay on the principal? What freedom does the principal have under it?

2. State how you would proceed tactfully to secure what you consider desirable modifications of the superintendent's program, giving reasons for each proposed modification.

3. State with definiteness what you would feel free to undertake in the way of supervision without violating your loyalty to the superintendent.

4. For your own guidance write out fully the ideals that you have for instruction in secondary schools. File this statement away and from time to time consult it for two purposes: (a) to refresh your memory and to renew your faith; and (b) to see how much you are growing.

5. What is your program for raising your own ideal and for increasing your knowledge of good teaching?

6. Draft a tentative plan for introducing supervision into a selected school in which it has not previously been carried on actively with success.



7. Give several instances observed in your experience in which the proper assignment of a teacher or of a pupil would have resulted in more and better education.

8. After considering all the causes for the neglect of supervision, decide how you will remove those that especially apply to you. Which of them are applicable to a person doing any kind of school work? If local conditions or personal considerations make it seem wise to modify the suggestions, does such necessary modification nullify the principle of the suggestion?

9. Look over the list of questions that should be asked in considering an observed recitation <sup>1</sup> and decide which of them a supervisor ignorant of the subject being taught is incompetent to answer. Would he be competent to answer any of these with the help of the teacher?

10. List the supervisory objectives and means that you judge a principal ignorant of a special subject could seek and use with fair promise of success.

<sup>1</sup> See pages 335-336.



## CHAPTER IX

---

### THE ULTIMATE BASIS OF SUPERVISION

---

Like teaching, supervision may be mechanistic and superficial rather than truly effective. It may concern itself with the details of instruction, such as the clearness of assignments, the number and distribution of questions, the intensity of drill, or the objective measurement of results, without directing the attention of teachers or pupils to the ends that education should consistently seek. The gulf that so often exists in the minds of teachers between the philosophy of education, its definition and its indicated objectives, and practice is to be bridged by efficient supervision.

#### A CONCEPT OF EDUCATION BASED ON A CONCEPT OF SOCIETY

**Teaching Good for Something.**—An observer of a recitation is very likely to evaluate it in terms of what the teacher and the pupils do at the time. But if he is to give the most effective help toward the proper kind of growth, his attention must be constantly directed to the objectives which the means are intended to achieve. Josiah Royce long ago made clear that the word *good* has no meaning until qualified by a prepositional phrase. An assignment may be clear, given without haste, and stimulating to industry, but it is good only in terms of direction of the pupils toward the desired kinds of growth. Questions may be skillfully prepared, reasonable in number, and well distributed, but they may be wholly bad in that they do not stimulate the pupils in development toward the desired kind of men and women. The attention of the pupils may be rapt, but at the same time directed toward what is of small value. The industry may result in the achievement and the retention of that which is hardly worth knowing. Therefore an observer's constant questions should be, What is the teacher aiming at? Is this the best objective possible at this time? and, What are the contributions of the various activities to



the desired objectives? Teaching should be good for something worthwhile.

Consequently when someone wishes to know if a recitation is good, he must at once raise the question "good for what?" If his philosophy has approved "efficient democratic citizenship," or any similar objective, as the end that education should seek, he will need to ask how every detail directly or indirectly contributes to it. The chief reason why philosophies of education have had so little effect on teaching procedures is that the objectives which they propose are often so remote from classroom procedures that teachers cannot realize the relationship of what they can do in one or more recitation periods to the remote general objectives. They approve wholeheartedly "efficient democratic citizenship" as the ultimate objective of education, but they do not know how to make English composition or literature, mathematics or science, foreign languages or history, music or art contribute most effectively to it. As a matter of fact, they forget the ultimate objective in their conscientious effort to use skillfully accustomed means, which may or may not be the best possible for achieving them. They fail to remember that no means —i.e., the details of the recitation— are good except as they contribute to the ultimate objective that should be sought. The chief responsibility of supervision is to see that teachers understand and accept the best possible ultimate objectives and then that they select and consistently use the means that most assuredly contribute to them.

It cannot be expected that every detail in a classroom period —the subject-matter considered, the experiences that are made possible, the techniques of teaching and of learning, and the behavior demanded—will contribute directly to the ultimate objectives. Many of them are remote by one or more steps in the complex hierarchy of objectives. "Effective democratic citizenship" demands, for example, that every person shall be able to express himself both orally and in writing so that others can understand him. Therefore a series of experiences in composition are provided. In one set of these experiences emphasis is laid on the value of clearly stated topic sentences and of various means of developing them in unified paragraphs, and this in turn demands spelling and punctuation which will make it possible for others most easily and surely to get the idea



intended. Punctuation is some distance removed from the ultimate objective of effective democratic citizenship, but it is seen to be contributory nevertheless. Unless its relationship is kept in mind, however, it tends increasingly to become an end in itself. Sometimes it is even taught, as grammar frequently is, apart even from composition.

This illustration is used to indicate that even a detail like punctuation or spelling has or can be made to have a real value in terms of some remote objective. Other illustrations of details that are more immediately contributory will occur to everyone. The emphasis here is that supervision has a basic responsibility to see first of all that the teachers agree on some ultimate objective of education. In this book no one philosophy of education is advocated. The principles of supervision here presented can be used equally well with any one that is sensible, but it is essential that the teachers of a school shall wholeheartedly accept one that will direct their work. Supervision should then undertake the continuing responsibility of seeing that it determines and gives meaning to all the details of classroom procedures. It is no simple challenge; it cannot be satisfactorily met in a single teachers meeting or in a single conference.

**Begin Supervision with Scrutiny of Purpose.**—In evaluating an observed recitation, then, and in planning for the growth of the teacher, the supervisor must ask himself what the purpose of the recitation was and how it promised to contribute to the attainment of the ultimate objective that had been approved by the faculty. Sometimes he will need to take several steps, as indicated previously, before he can see the relationship of what was attempted to what is desired. But until he has taken these steps he is in no position to do effective supervision. Unless he takes them he will tend, like mechanical teachers, to lay emphasis on isolated details and to confirm the practice of making those that might be effective means merely ends in themselves.

This procedure is necessary not only in evaluating what has been attempted, measuring its effectiveness in terms of what it is good *for*, but also in planning for improved procedures in the future. What are the best things that the teacher can do under the limitations imposed by tradition, outside demands, training, equipment, student personnel, and the like to achieve with the



greatest directness the approved objectives of education? All suggestions for improving the subject-matter, the techniques of teaching, and the conduct of the class should be indicated by the answers to this question. Only as the supervisor habituates himself to keep the ultimate objectives clearly in mind, to evaluate procedures in terms of them, and to plan how they can most assuredly and most economically be reached can he expect to become efficient in his own responsibility.

It is not sufficient for the supervisor to make this demand on himself alone. He must continually attempt to enlarge the teachers' vision, to make them realize that their procedures must be planned in terms of what they wish education to achieve. It will not be easy for a teacher who has been content to impart with such skill as he has acquired the subject-matter that has been presented, mostly from tradition, in the adopted textbooks or the similarly devised syllabus to keep his eyes fixed on ultimate objectives. First he is likely not to be able to see how, directly or indirectly, he can make his subject contribute in detail to the approved ends of education. Here the supervisor can be of great help, not by giving the answers, but by helping the teachers to find them and by putting on them ceaseless pressure to do so. After awhile both will come to feel that it is professionally not respectable to fail to do so.

As the teacher is developing the habit of evaluating his own work in terms of the ultimate objectives and of planning more assuredly to achieve them he will become critical, sometimes overly critical, of what he has been doing and skeptical of the possibilities. This is a healthy and a promising state of mind. Probably some of his past procedures cannot be justified and so should be abandoned and replaced by those that can be. Others he will be able after more or less help to justify and to improve. There is slight possibility of the "creative teaching" previously approved until the teacher has very clearly in mind the general objectives that he wishes to achieve and until he has accepted the responsibility of consistently working toward them. There is no liberation of the professional spirit possible until the teacher knows and heartily approves the end that is to be reached.

**Teachers Not Now Concerned with Ultimate Objectives.**—It is notable that the difficulties reported by teachers seldom in-



clude those of interpreting ultimate educational objectives. Of 1682 questions, inquiries, and requests for help made to 154 supervisors, only one-tenth of one per cent were concerned with the interpretation of educational objectives.<sup>1</sup> "Teachers are neither interested in nor concerned with the basic principles underlying the work of the school. Their requests are for help in meeting the practical and too often the routine issues." "Teachers expect from the supervisor immediate help of a rather concrete nature. They very often complain that supervision ties them down and overwhelms them with minute details, that it insists that things be done in specific concrete ways. Since it is just these specific and minute things which the teachers demand overwhelmingly whenever given the opportunity, the suspicion is justified that the casual complaints of teachers are not well founded."

Although these conclusions are based on data from elementary school teachers, there is little reason to think that teachers in secondary schools have markedly different attitudes. It is probable that almost no interest was manifested in ultimate educational objectives because the supervision which was afforded had neglected them in order to give immediate specific help. Teachers in secondary schools are certainly intelligent enough and by and large sufficiently professional to understand the value of concern with ultimate objectives in order that the daily work may have meaning and that it may be most effectively planned and economically performed. Real supervision will attempt constantly to bring about such understanding and to direct it to efficient education. If professional growth toward creative teaching is desired, there seems to be no other means of developing it. Certainly the supervisor cannot be expected to perform his functions satisfactorily by giving detailed suggestions as to procedure. In the first place, he cannot give to each teacher enough time to offer all such suggestions that are needed; and in the second place, unless they are justified by reference to ultimate objectives they have small meaning and are ineffective for stimulating real professional growth.

The means that the supervisor will use to develop in teachers the habit of looking toward ultimate objectives in planning for

<sup>1</sup> *Current Problems of Supervisors*. Third Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, 1930.



more effective education are numerous. Primarily he will use the group meetings to make the necessity reasonable and to secure agreement on the general objectives that the teachers are willing to use. Then in individual conferences he will insist on their being used. He will keep them to the fore in directions for reading, study, visits to observe other teachers, and in all constructive work, whether by individuals or by coöperating groups. But no supervisor can expect to be more highly successful with teachers than he has previously been with himself. In this matter he must be a leader, exemplifying in his own thinking, in his discussions, and in the performance of his own duties that he is consistently working toward the achievement of clearly defined and heartily accepted general educational objectives.

**Pupils and the Public Should Be Concerned with Ultimate Objectives.**—It is not too much to suggest that the habit desired in teachers should also be to some extent developed in the pupils themselves. If youth are to be educated as intelligent sharers in planning for their own growth, they must know and approve the ideals that they should seek. No modern philosophy of education approves a procedure that sets before youth a program of studies that they are under compulsion to master without understanding its values present or future; but much contemporary practice would seem to indicate that this is the proper kind of education. Because of common practice there should be little surprise that after leaving school so many youth manifest little ability to think for themselves, to apply what they have learned, and to plan for an effective continuance of their intellectual growth. This matter will be discussed more at length later. It is mentioned here as a challenge to supervision and as a possibility only after teachers have made considerable progress in developing for themselves the habit of thinking and planning their daily work in terms of the ultimate objectives of education.

Moreover, the supervisor should popularize the idea with the public. The vast majority of adults think of secondary education, when they think of it at all, as the kind of compulsory learning of more or less meaningless assignments that they performed in the schools of an earlier generation. They are still under the impression that hard and even disagreeable mental



labor is educative and that resulting "powers" will be automatically transferred to the activities that the world demands. If the head of a school can substitute for these fallacious beliefs in the mind of the public an understanding of the ultimate objectives of education and can show from time to time how they are being sought and achieved, he will develop a support for his program and gain an added stimulus to the staff to proceed even more rapidly in making it a reality.

#### A Definition of Education Needed.—

"Would you tell me, please, which way I ought to go from here?"

"That depends a good deal on where you want to get to," said the Cat.

"I don't much care where—" said Alice.

"Then it doesn't matter which way you go," said the Cat.

"—so long as I get *somewhere*," Alice added as an explanation.

"Oh, you're sure to do that," said the Cat, "if you only walk long enough."<sup>1</sup>

Many a practical educator has been in the state of mind that confused Alice. Although busied with carrying on the practices that tradition had handed on to him, he has sought to learn the direction in which he ought to go. The Cat's answers are perfectly logical, and unfortunately they have been satisfying to those who, not truly professional educators, were concerned only to "give satisfaction" from day to day, sure of getting "somewhere," though that indefinite destination might be bad, or not so good as it might be, for individual pupils or for the public that supports the schools.

The only sound and continuously helpful guide to the road of progress is a good definition of education that fits in with a good philosophy of life. Educators have been inclined, in this country as well as in many others, present and past, to assume that they can do their jobs well by being efficient in organization and administration and in the techniques of teaching materials prepared by others without responsibility for knowing the philosophy of life approved by their civilization and for using it to determine the kind of education that should be provided. It ought to be obvious without argument that an education appropriate to a primitive savage civilization would be not only inadequate but often positively harmful in a modern

<sup>1</sup> Lewis Carroll, *Alice in Wonderland*.



complex civilization of any kind, and that an education entirely satisfactory in communist Russia or in fascist Italy or in monarchical Japan would in many respects be subversive in the democracy that we profess. Education has been far less effective in our country than it could have been because it has either ignored the philosophy of our society or has made no serious and continuous attempt to use it to determine what shall be taught.

It is not possible in a book of this nature to enter upon a prolonged discussion of the philosophy of a democratic society or upon the consequent philosophy of education that it requires. All that can properly be undertaken here is to emphasize the necessity not only of clear understanding of these philosophies and devotion to them, but also of a continuous attempt to use them in deciding the fundamental issues of secondary education and in determining the curriculum and the methods by which it should be presented. Every principal and every teacher should seek to clarify his own mind as to the ideals of the society in which he lives and then to develop for himself, using whatever aids are available, a philosophy of education that is appropriate. The challenge is so tremendous, especially to those who have an appreciation from an attempt at understanding, that it is too frequently refused or too early abandoned. But those who are ambitious to be professional educators, leaders in their own field however small that may be, will accept it and will persist in their efforts to understand the ideals of democratic society and to develop gradually but surely an education that is suitable and effective. John Dewey says <sup>1</sup> that "a first-rate test of the value of any philosophy which is offered is: does it end in conclusions which when they are referred back to ordinary life-experiences and their predicaments, render them more significant, more luminous to us, and make our dealings with them more fruitful?"

It is also essential that a leader clarify his mind as to the meaning of education. It is astounding to find on inquiry that many supervisors, as well as teachers, of long experience have never taken the trouble to formulate a satisfactory definition of education or to use it constantly and consistently in planning and in carrying on their work. Definitions are frequently slogans

<sup>1</sup> *Experience and Nature*, p. 7.



to be quoted but not looked to as directive of procedures. Workers in the field too often look on definitions of education as the concern of "authorities," remote and mysterious persons who are presumed to have labored up Sinai and whose pronouncements are therefore not to be questioned.

**Characteristics of a Good Definition of Education.**—Even a superficial examination of the definitions of education proposed by "authorities," however, will reveal that they are in many respects contradictory. When "authorities" disagree, whither shall one who is sincerely seeking help turn? Perhaps the greatest weakness in our education today is the reluctance, due in large part to the types of professional training provided, of educators to think for themselves and to accept responsibility for acting on conclusions that their own thinking indicates as sound. Authorities can at best only propose definitions of education. From them every educator can select what appeals to him as acceptable and eventually develop a definition of his own that will prove helpful. A good definition must have the following characteristics.

*It must be clear.* There has been considerable ridicule from time to time of the language used in educational writings, one critic calling it "pedaguese." It is true that there is a necessity for a certain amount of technical diction in discussion of technical matters, but a definition of education requires no language that cannot be readily understood by the reader who is supposed to use it. It may safely be asserted that everything of importance in the general field of education can be stated so simply that any layman can understand it. Often—usually, in fact—high-sounding or invented terms merely conceal incomplete thinking. Certainly if they are not understood they are of no help to one who is seeking help. If a reader cannot after reasonable effort ascertain clearly what an author means, he is justified in abandoning his writings. An author without readers will not long continue publication.

Difficulty in reading educational literature is caused quite as much by figurative and involved language as by the use of technical terms. When one reads that "What sculpture is to a block of marble, education is to the human soul," he may be impressed by the diction, but he learns nothing that is sound. The sculptor has in his mind an image which he attempts to



express in the insensate marble; his success depends entirely on his own skill conditioned by the material with which he has to work. The educator has in his mind an ideal also, but it is generally accepted that the child and his parents, to say nothing of society, have a right to ideals of their own, ideals that in the long run are more potent than the teacher's. The teacher may on one day build up here and tear down there, but he often finds on a later day that other forces stronger than his have negated his work. Education is of necessity a coöperative enterprise. Similarly the definition by Pestalozzi quoted as No. 12 in the Exercises accompanying this chapter is impressive in its figure, and it emphasizes the sound point of continuous growth of nature, but it is doubtful if it is clear enough to help anyone plan his teaching better.

The very first demand, then, upon a definition of education is that it be clear. Educators should cease to be reverential of what they cannot understand. They should realize that if an author does not make himself clear, the fault is his own. He may or may not have something worth saying; he may or may not have thought his idea through so that it is clear in his own mind. But the certainty is that he has not succeeded in his intention of saying something so that it has meaning and therefore potential influence on the reader. If educators will have the courage to assert that what they do not understand has no value to them, if they will cease quoting with reverence mysterious jargon, and if they will demand from educational literature a clarity that indicates what action should follow, the progress of education will be more assured than it now is.

*It must be sound.* A definition must be sound first of all with regard to the ideals of the society that supports it. This assertion emphasizes the necessity of educators understanding the ideals of society and of believing in them. No one in this country could approve a definition which indicates that education should furnish opportunities to only one class of youth, whether they be the rich or the poor, the urban or the rural, those unusually gifted for learning abstractions or those with a bent toward utilitarian values. No one in a democracy could approve a definition which implies that education is for the purpose of developing implicit, automatic, and thoughtless obedience to authority. Any proposed definition of education should be care-



fully scrutinized in terms of the ideals of the supporting society, ideals which often are much higher than the common practices, and in terms of the consequent philosophy of education.

A definition should be sound also with regard to modern psychology. A professor of education, formerly a college president, wrote: "It has been well said that an educated man has a sharp axe in his hand, and an uneducated man a dull one. I should say that the purpose of a college education is to sharpen the axe to its keenest edge." His conception was based on the assumption that there is a general power which can be developed so that it is effective for any and all uses. This is the old assumption of general powers in the human intellect, which has been entirely discredited by modern psychology. It no longer permits us to believe that there is an automatic and inevitable transfer of learning in one field to certain use in others; it holds that although some transfer of skills based on concepts of a general principle is possible, the most economical means of learning anything is in the situation in which it is to be used. One can in the same length of time achieve much more in spelling English words by studying them than by studying foreign languages; one can learn better to act in modern politics by studying the problems of democracy than by knowing all the history of ancient peoples. Modern psychology has also discredited the old but still persistent belief that there is value in "discipline," defined as doing that which is difficult and disagreeable but otherwise useless. And modern psychology has emphasized facts of individual differences which education has largely ignored, though they should have been more or less obvious to careful common-sense observation.

A definition should be sound, finally, when judged by common sense. It may not be infallible, but it is the only sense that one who is to make the judgment has. Even when it leads to temporarily erroneous conclusions, it is better than blind acceptance of the pronouncements of others. The former may be corrected; the latter are likely to persist and to develop a habit that inhibits sound growth. All of us rise by stepping stones of our dead selves. If educators in our schools, teachers as well as administrators, would assert and maintain their right to use their own judgments about education, correcting them only on the basis of convincing evidence, which they should con-



stantly seek from those who are expert in the profession, we should be assured of a professional attitude not hitherto known and of a progress that cannot otherwise be substantial and sound. The attitude that educators should manifest toward a proposed definition is one that demands merely that it be justified to such common sense as they have.

*It must be comprehensive.* The early idea of education in this country, an idea still persisting in many minds, was that it should be concerned merely with the training of the intellect by means of foreign languages and later of related subjects involving rote memory and abstract reasoning. The modern idea is that education is concerned with the development of the whole complex of any individual. It is still concerned with the intellect, of course, but also with health, social relations, political responsibility, ethical character, and aesthetics. The definition of education as signifying "the mastery of certain sequences of important ideas to such a point that insights resulting therefrom shall be trustworthy and convincing to their possessor," may be sound as far as it goes, but it does not go far enough. The definition that "education means the universal distribution of extant knowledge" besides lacking in any indication of relative values and being impossible of achievement, limits education to the possession of knowledge, which certainly is inadequate for the rounded development of men and women.

It must not be thought that the emphasis on comprehensiveness relieves education from responsibility for imparting knowledge and for developing so far as it can habits of logical thinking. These are still of high importance, but the possession of encyclopaedic knowledge and an ability to think after the pattern of a syllogism, which no one possesses as a habit, would not be sufficient to produce a person educated in the modern sense of the word. To participate happily and successfully in the society in which he is to live he must get much more from education. He should have education for health, for getting on with other people, for recognizing and performing satisfactorily all of the duties that fall to him, for developing character, which is the sum of his emotionalized attitudes.<sup>1</sup> A defini-

<sup>1</sup> See Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*, pp. 370-439. The Macmillan Company, 1933.



tion of education should be sufficiently comprehensive to include the development of the whole of every individual.

*It must be adaptable.* Any good definition of education must be adaptable to all situations. It must indicate the goals for dull pupils as well as for those who are gifted, for pupils in rural communities as well as those in a metropolis, for pupils in Massachusetts as well as in Arizona, for pupils in abnormal circumstances as well as for those who are typical in our society. Not infrequently definitions have been formulated that apply only to certain types of pupils, notably those who are ambitious for academic advancement. It is doubtless highly desirable that education shall "powerfully inculcate the views of life and the demands on life that are appropriate to maturity and that are indeed the specific marks, the outward and visible signs, of the inward and spiritual grace of maturity." But the kinds of maturity possible for one group of pupils in a normal environment are utterly impossible for others with different natural gifts who live in unfavorable conditions.

A serious defect in our educational practices is that there has been a large degree of imitation by schools in small and rural communities of the programs developed for large cities. Granted that these are suitable for metropolitan youth, though the concession is made only for the sake of argument, it cannot be seriously contended that they are altogether the best for youth who have different surroundings, who lack the advantages of adequate libraries, museums, the opera, varied industries, and the like. The curriculum of the early Latin Grammar schools was based on a definition of education that looked toward the preparation of leaders in the simple government of the time and in the church. Although it was entirely inadequate even for that purpose, its influence has senselessly persisted to the present time because it is easier to imitate than to adapt or to create. We still wish education to prepare leaders for the state, and we wish it to do far more; but the demands of the state have changed, and for the purpose of preparing leaders the curriculum and the methods must change too.

The best definition of education, then, is one that would have been soundly directive in the early days of our country and is equally sound in its direction today. It should be helpful in a primitive society and in the complex interrelated civiliza-



tion of the present. When the United States sent educators to reorganize the schools of Puerto Rico and the Philippine Islands after these countries were taken over from Spain, they should have carried with them a definition of education that would have led them to develop a program adapted to the needs and the possibilities of the people. Instead, lacking such a definition, they to a considerable extent attempted to imitate the curriculum of our country. However suitable "Snowbound" may be for teaching in New England, it can hardly be justified for San Juan or Manila. The Rosenwald Commission that set up a program for education in Samoa labored under no such handicap of imitation. It had a concept of education that forced them to study the people, to ascertain their needs, to estimate their possibilities, and to propose a program adapted to the existing conditions.

In selecting a definition, then, that will sensibly guide teachers in developing an educational program suitable to the community, the supervisor will look for one that is adaptable to the circumstances, whatever they may be, in which he has to work. This is not to say that the school should not attempt to improve these circumstances, but neither should it helplessly rely on imitation of curricula and methods developed in other places, perhaps very different. When a teacher once complained that his pupils were no good because they gave no evidence of appreciation of the course of study and the methods that he was using or of profiting from them, although this course had been successful in a cultured suburban community, he was reminded by his supervisor that his pupils were the only children that the people had who paid his salary. It was his business to use a definition of education that would lead him to adapt both course of study and methods to their capacities, aptitudes, interests, and probable needs.

*It must be pragmatic.* The philosophy of pragmatism, initiated by Pierce and developed by William James and John Dewey, holds that nothing has any meaning unless it makes a difference. A pragmatic definition of education, therefore, is one that impels a person who accepts it to do something different from the ordinary practice, or one that will give him a justification for what he is already doing and will continue to do with the satisfaction of knowing that it is right. In every



event it will lead to action, and action does not mean mere memorizing and quotation. It is astounding to find many educators who look on definitions as politicians so frequently do their platforms, something to talk about and then subsequently neglect.

What value is there in giving verbal approval to a definition of education as the process of making effective citizens in a democracy and then proceeding with entire neglect of the actual requirements of democracy? To do so denies that the definition has any real meaning. To quote it in promoting approval of the educational program and then to neglect it is not decently honest.

In planning to lead teachers in a continuous improvement of education, a supervisor needs to find or to develop a definition that impels to action and then day in and day out to urge that the indicated action be performed. It is so much easier to continue old habits, to teach what one is accustomed to teach and in ways that one was taught, that the habit of using a pragmatic definition is difficult to establish. Relatively few people unaided ever learn to use definitions or principles when planning what they will do. It is one of the chief responsibilities of a supervisor to see that teachers keep the approved definition constantly in mind and that they use it to evaluate what they have done and to plan what they will do. He can make no greater contribution to professional growth in service than by continually attempting this. By developing the habit of using a definition as an impelling director of action teachers become independent and soundly creative.

It is not sufficient that an accepted definition show that traditional practices are unjustifiable. Some that at first seem so may prove after more complete study of the implications of the definition to be sound. The chief pragmatic value of a definition lies in its indications of what should be taught and how, whether this be novel or not. The definition quoted on the second page of this chapter requires that the desirable characteristics of the effective citizen in our democracy be ascertained and that teachers then devise means of developing them in the pupils. Any topic or any experience that does not contribute, directly or indirectly, to the making of effective citizens in a democracy cannot be justified in the program by this definition.



More than that, those topics and experiences that promise the greatest contribution deserve the most attention. If a teacher cannot justify some accustomed unit of instruction by its contribution to the stated objective, he is compelled either to abandon it, to modify it, or to accept another definition. But, as before stated, emphasis should be placed primarily on the devising of positively contributing experiences. When they become abundant, those that are unjustifiable will be crowded out of the curriculum. There is no value in a negative procedure, finding what cannot be substantiated without devising better experiences for substitution. Success in teaching depends on a faith in the worth of what is taught.

*It must indicate what is possible.* A definition like the one by Ward quoted earlier, "Education means the universal distribution of extant knowledge," is not only lacking in comprehensiveness but also in possibility. No teacher can hope to impart to all of his pupils any considerable part of the knowledge that exists in the world. If the challenge to accept this definition is put upon him, the result is confusion and discouragement. Realizing that he cannot succeed in the requirement, he has no indication of what part of extant knowledge he should attempt to teach.

Similarly Milton's famous definition,<sup>1</sup> which has been quoted with approval by many leaders in education who are overimpressed by its grandiose comprehensiveness, is utterly lacking in helpfulness because it proposes an impossible task. It cannot be saved by the qualifying adjectives "complete" and "generous." No person in modern times could ever be expected to perform in any manner all the offices, public and private, of peace or of war, to say nothing of performing them "justly, skillfully, and magnanimously." The idea of a soldier's thrusting a bayonet into the bowels of his enemy magnanimously indicates how incompletely the author or those who quote the definition have thought through its meaning. Confronted by the definition, what will a teacher do? He himself has learned to perform but few of the offices of peace and fewer of those of war; he has neither competence nor hope to make his pupils better at the time than he is himself; and he will despair of leading them to attain a spirit of justness, skill, and magnanim-

<sup>1</sup> See No. 5 in the appended Exercises.



ity in most of what they can learn. The result is that he is helped by the definition precisely not at all. Because of the impossibility of the indicated task, he does nothing that is different from traditional practice. If he quotes the definition as his ideal and then makes no changes in his conventional procedure, he is committing the cardinal sin of self-deception, which is more fatal than an attempt to deceive others.

While it is true that a definition of education should indicate an ideal higher than conventional procedures, it should not be set so high that it is impossible either of attainment or of approximation. The ideal definition, like the Golden Rule of the New Testament, will reveal a continuously receding goal: the farther one advances, the higher it becomes. "Man's reach should exceed his grasp"; he should always perceive a goal just a little in advance of what he can achieve. But if it is so far in advance that the immediate task seems futile, the result will be discouragement rather than stimulus. The approved definition should indicate something that can be done with success immediately and then be used as an advance station toward the goal that is still perceived as realizable under existing conditions.

It has been argued that supervision must be based on understanding of society and its ideals and on a harmonious philosophy of education. Implicit in the latter is a definition of education. This definition must be clear, sound, comprehensive, adaptable, pragmatic, and indicative of what is possible. These requirements will probably not be met for all educators by any single definition. Understanding of society and its ideals will differ, philosophies of education will vary at least in emphasis, and local conditions will to some extent modify conceptions of what it is possible to attempt. Therefore a supervisor must develop with the faculty a definition which, meeting the criteria proposed, is acceptable to them. It is possible that they may find such a definition already formulated; it is probable, however, that after considering many proposed by others they will wish to develop their own. What is essential is that they shall believe in the one approved, believe in it with such justified faith that they are willing to work consistently and courageously to make it effective in determining a constantly improving program of education.



## EXERCISES

1. Consider Royce's contention that the word "good" has no meaning until qualified by a prepositional phrase. Apply the idea in considering the extent to which an observed recitation is good.
  2. How do you explain the report that teachers are not concerned with the ultimate objectives of education?
  3. What are the arguments for and against attempting to develop in pupils an understanding of and a concern with ultimate educational objectives?
  4. Why have the writings of educational authorities so frequently failed to help teachers?
  5. Recall from your experience one or more instances in which the principal attempted to use ultimate objectives to determine the kinds of activities carried on in classrooms. Account for the success or the lack of it.
  6. Plan in some detail the means that you would use to convince teachers that the ultimate objectives should determine everything that goes on in the school.
  7. Prepare a plan for making the approved ultimate objectives influence the teaching of some teacher whom you know well.
  8. What results do you think might reasonably be expected in one year from a program of supervision that attempts to make ultimate objectives determine the experiences that pupils are led to have?
  9. Consider as many of the following definitions of education as you feel it is profitable for you to do, evaluating each one by the criteria proposed.<sup>1</sup>
- 

(1) Education should help each individual to attain the highest degree of happiness by living a virtuous life as a citizen of a virtuous state.—*Aristotle*.

(2) The aim of education is training for manhood and womanhood, for usefulness and happiness rather than for rank or station.—*Comenius*.

(3) A knowledge of the world and the capacity effectively to deal with it.—*Locke*.

(4) The object of education is preparation for more effective service in state and church.—*Luther*.

(5) I call a complete and generous education that which fits a man to perform justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices both public and private of peace and war.—*Milton*.

<sup>1</sup> Eight of these definitions are taken from W. C. Ruediger's *Principles of Education*, which quotes a list of fifty.



(6) To offer to all individuals of the human race the means of providing for their needs, of assuring their welfare, of knowing and exercising their rights, of understanding and fulfilling their obligations.—*Condorcet*.

(7) To assure each one the facility of perfecting his skill, or rendering himself capable of the social functions to which he has the right to be called, of developing to the fullest extent those talents with which Nature has endowed him; and thereby to establish among all citizens an actual equality, thus rendering real the political equality recognized by the law.—*Condorcet*.

(8) The end of education is triple: (1) to develop the mental faculties, (2) to communicate knowledge, and (3) to mould character.—*Thiry*.

(9) The end of education is to train away all impediment, and to leave only pure power.—*Emerson*.

(10) Education is the process by which individual man elevates himself to the species.—*Rosenkranz*.

(11) The idea of what is true merit should also be often presented to youth, explained and impressed on their minds, consisting in an inclination, joined with an ability, to serve mankind, one's country, friends, and family; which ability is, with the blessing of God, to be acquired or greatly increased by true learning; and should, indeed, be the great aim and end of all learning.—*Franklin*.

(12) Sound education stands before me symbolized by a tree planted near fertilizing waters. A little seed, which contains the design of the tree, its form and proportions, is placed in the soil. See how it germinates and expands into trunk, branches, leaves, flowers, and fruit! The whole tree is an uninterrupted chain of organic parts, the plan of which existed in its seed and root. Man is similar to the tree.—*Pestalozzi*.

(13) Education is the process by which the individual comes into continually increasing possession of himself and his powers through continually increased participation in the race achievement.—*Pestalozzi*.

(14) The purpose of education is to train children, not with reference to their success in the present state of society, but to a better possible state, in accordance with an ideal conception of humanity.—*Kant*.

(15) Education is an attempt on the part of the adult members of a human society to shape the development of the coming generation in accordance with its own ideals of life.—*James Welton*.

(16) Education aims to make possible an efficient social life in the environment which society now provides and, also, to furnish the desire and the means for the gradual improvement of that environment.—*A Philosophy of Secondary Education in New Jersey*.

(17) Education is primarily a process of transmission of the old, not, as so many enthusiasts have supposed, a way of creating the new.—*Margaret Mead*.



(18) Education is the instruction of intellect in the laws of nature; under which name I include, not merely things and their forces but men and their ways; and the fashioning of the affections and the will into an earnest and living desire to move in harmony with their laws.—*Huxley*.

(19) The aim of education . . . is . . . the development of a desire to find values.—*Aloys Fischer*.

(20) Education is a conscious or voluntary evolution.—*Davidson*.

(21) Education is influence exercised by adult generations on those who are not yet mature for social life. Its aim is to develop in the child a certain number of physical, intellectual, and moral qualities which are expected of him both by political society collectively and by the particular environment in which he is destined to live as an individual.—*Durkheim*.

(22) To enable every human being to obtain personal cultivation to share to the fullest in all the things that give value to human life.—*Krupskaia*.

(23) The main goal of education is realizing the values of living. The social goal is some form of democracy. The individual goal is the cultivation of personality in the physical and social medium.—*H. H. Horne*.

(24) Education may be defined as a process of the continuous reconstruction of experience with the purpose of widening and deepening its social content, while at the same time the individual gains control of the methods involved.—*John Dewey*.

(25) Education is life.—*John Dewey*. (See his supplement to this statement on page 51 of his *How We Think*, second edition.)

(26) The proper education of today is a preparation for the duties and responsibilities of life.—*C. M. Woodward*.

(27) Those studies (Latin, Greek, and mathematics), then, in a word, were regarded as formative because they are *maturing*, because they powerfully inculcate the views of life and the demands on life that are appropriate to maturity and that are indeed the specific marks, the outward and visible signs, of the inward and spiritual grade of maturity. And now we are in a position to observe that the establishment of these views and the direction of those demands is what is traditionally meant, and what we citizens of the republic of letters now mean, by the word education; . . . —*Albert J. Nock*.

(28) Education is the effort to supplement and to correct the casual experiences of life with other experiences, so planned and proportioned that together they will to the fullest possible extent bring about the actual development of the latent values of human personality.—*Arthur E. Morgan*.

(29) The work of education is to make changes in human minds and bodies.—*E. L. Thorndike*.



(30) The ultimate aim of education is to realize a condition in which human wants must be fully satisfied. . . . To change a want is to make the most fundamental of possible changes. Once a want is changed, all sorts of subordinate changes in thought, feeling, and action occur as a result. . . . Each individual will secure the fullest realization of his wants when they harmonize with and facilitate the fulfillment of the wants of mankind as a whole.—*Thorndike and Gates*.

(31) His [the teacher's] position is strictly that of a conveyor of knowledge—moral and intellectual—to a yet unoccupied and growing mind.—*Mansfield*.

(32) Education represents the continuing intellectual and spiritual growth of the individual.—*John C. Merriam*.

(33) Education is the process designed to help a human being to appreciate God, to know himself, and to understand the spirit of the age in which he lives so that he can live in, serve, and act with and on the community in which his lot is cast.—*Auckland Geddes*.

(34) . . . Education in a democracy, both within and without the school, should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends.—*Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*.

(35) Education in all its aspects has to do with giving direction to the development of the skill, technical knowledge, and social understanding by which the individual grows physically, occupationally, socially, culturally, and ethically. Every effective program of education, then, should be measured in terms of desirable growth and development.—*Some Philosophic Considerations Basic to Curriculum Making*, California State Department of Education.

(36) Education enables the individual to function effectively in the interest of individual and social well being.—*Pennsylvania Committee on Guiding Principles of Education*.

(37) The aim of education is life enrichment through participation in a democratic social order.—*A Program for Teaching Science*, Thirty-first Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education.

(38) Education is an effect which comes from experiences operating as causes.—*A Program for Teaching Science*, Thirty-first Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education.

10. What other definitions proposed by authorities in education do you think should be similarly considered?

11. Profiting by your study of the definitions proposed by others and using the criteria that have been discussed, prepare a definition that is satisfactory to you.

12. Apply your own definition of education to the following topics and decide whether or not a consideration of them should properly find



a place in the curriculum of some secondary school with which you are familiar.

- (a) Social conversation
- (b) The talking pictures
- (c) Selecting a physician
- (d) Local architecture
- (e) Modern miracles
- (f) The organization of some religious denomination
- (g) Chain stores
- (h) Funeral customs
- (i) The physiology of the frog
- (j) Life insurance
- (k) The symphonies of Beethoven
- (l) Newspaper reading
- (m) Mathematical puzzles
- (n) The court of Louis XIV
- (c) How to enjoy travel abroad

13. Apply your definition of education to several cases of misbehavior in school and see what constructive and corrective procedures it indicates.

14. What implications has your definition of education for improved methods of teaching?

15. Indicate in some detail how the ultimate objectives that you approve should influence the presentation of some phases of the subject with which you are most familiar.



## CHAPTER X

---

# THE GOLDEN RULES OF EDUCATION

---

### INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapter emphasis was laid on the necessity of both teachers and supervisors having a sound understanding of the ideals of democratic society and a consonant definition of education. This definition, it was argued, must be clear, sound, comprehensive, adaptable, pragmatic, and indicative of what is possible under conditions as they exist or as they can be improved. It is the expectation that every reader of this book has developed a definition that is satisfactory to him.

To test the developed definition one may reflect on what he would do in a given secondary school if he had no restrictions whatever—no requirements by law or by other outside agencies, no overpowering traditions, teachers entirely satisfactory in personality and training, abundant equipment, and all freedom to direct the school as he thinks best. Of course in every school embarrassing restrictions do exist, and they are so obvious that schoolmen have become accustomed to cite them as excuses for not courageously attempting to improve the education offered rather than as challenges to be accepted. Leaders must clarify their minds as to what they would like in order that they may lessen, remove, or neglect the obstacles. The man who does not have a definite ideal to which he is devoted always loses in a compromise. His activity is inevitably handicapped unless he knows what he wants to do. There is no better way to move toward the development of an ideal program than to begin constructive thinking with an assumption of entire freedom.

**Opportunities for Freedom.**—There are more opportunities for freedom than are generally realized. Numerous independent institutions, such as schools for orphans and schools run by industrial plants, have few restrictions imposed by outside authority. In every public school approximately half the pupils



who have no intention of going to college may be educated to a large extent with no reference to traditional courses and methods and no one would object.

Even in classes of college-bound students there are opportunities for freedom far in excess of those that are ordinarily seized. The lack of popularity of the "comprehensive" examination for college admission is evidence that the schools do not use the freedom that they have. Beginning in 1931 the Progressive Education Association conducted an eight-year study which permitted thirty secondary schools to develop with entire freedom from college requirements such curricula and courses of study as they thought good. And since then many other schools have in varying degrees been freed. Numerous colleges have manifested a willingness to accept pupils, whatever the nature of their preparation, who are recommended by responsible schools as likely to be successful in advanced work. High schools preparing for colleges that do not require entrance examination already have, in most instances, more freedom than they use.

The whole extra-curricular program can be devised and administered, as to a certain extent it has been, as really educative because there are few or no requirements for it, and the restrictions are more largely in vision than in the competence of the personnel or the limitations of equipment. And that important part of education resulting from personal contacts with parents, teachers, and friends is carried on with neither direction nor authoritative criticism by others.

It is much easier to find a man or woman whom one can recommend with confidence to do satisfactorily a conventional piece of work as principal to keep the wheels of a school running smoothly along the traditional road, than it is to find one competent and eager to assume with promise of success responsibility for developing an unrestricted program that is based on sound ideals and that leads to assured contribution to the needs of pupils and society.

If one attempting constructive thinking in a normal situation feels himself too much shackled by tradition as by requirements, he may imagine himself the Swiss father Robinson cast away with his family on an island and with only such equipment as he has been able to rescue from the wrecked ship. The salvage



has been temporarily stowed away; the children have gone to sleep; and father and mother sit by the fire to plan such education as they can give. No inspectors are likely to drop in; colleges are remote possibilities; no authorities can be consulted. What concept of the desired ideal will the parents have? What definition of education will help them plan for the development of their children? If a definition is good, it will "work" under these conditions quite as well as under any other. The soundness of planning, the ingenuity and inventiveness, the courage and consistency manifested on the island would be very good evidence of what would be attempted in Satucket, Aurora, San Francisco, Galveston, or Raleigh.

In the summer of 1932 the Barstow Foundation sent a commission to plan for the education of the natives in American Samoa, "a country tropical in its climate and in the abundance of its accessible food and its ease of life; primitive in tools and material culture; highly organized in its ceremonial and social customs. The people have worked out ways of life admirably adapted to their environment which provide them with enough to suffice their needs and offer abundant satisfactions in personal and social expression," though this was very different from what we are accustomed to in our country. The natives have tools similar to those in northern Europe two thousand years ago. In some of the islands no wheel of any kind has ever turned. They lack the "concepts of mathematics and the formulations of science; . . . in fact, [they] are innocent of understanding that these secrets are obtainable and usable by man." The people cannot read, and of course there are no books. There is "an elaborate gradation of social standing [that] runs from highest chiefs down to untitled menials, an order which depends primarily on heredity, but in which men and families move up or down the scale on current merit and achievement." But the people "are in the throes of radical change from primitive ways to the modern organized efficiencies of Western civilization."

"Heretofore schools among such people have been conducted either by missionaries, who were naturally out of sympathy with much of the native life and used education to inculcate adherence to a new religion and to the customs of the Christianizing nations; or by the foreign administrative authorities who



establish schools on European or American models regardless of the needs of these very different people."

Assuming that the facts given adequately characterize the situation, how should you as a member of the benevolent commission have proceeded to formulate the program that it was to recommend and propose to finance? It is much more important for one's own growth to think such a program through than it is to read the interesting report, "A New School in American Samoa."<sup>1</sup> The procedure that one would use in Samoa is the same procedure that one should use to indicate the kind of school that is needed in the United States. Obviously one would have to begin with a definition of education that is clear, sound, comprehensive, adaptable, pragmatic, and indicative of what is possible.

From time to time commissions have been sent from the United States to Puerto Rico, the Philippines, Irak, and other countries to propose programs for education. It is notable that their recommendations have concerned more fundamental matters, on the whole, than have the recommendations of similar commissions who have studied the schools in states or cities in our own country. In the face of freedom one tends either to fall back helplessly on imitation of traditional activities, perhaps improved in the mechanics of organization and administration, or more courageously to begin with concepts of ideals, which alone can lead to material progress. The unusual situations presented are for the purpose of giving entire freedom to the constructive imagination and of stimulating the use of a definition of education as the basis for developing a suitable program.

**Do Teachers Want Freedom?**—There can be no question but that the majority of teachers and even of principals do not at present demand or desire freedom and opportunity. They much prefer being told by some "authority" just what they ought to attempt and how. Some ask if they should teach Chaucer's "Prologue" in the tenth year of the commercial curriculum, whether five cases of factoring are sufficient in first-year algebra, how much progress in the history text they should have made by November 13, and the like. Obviously such questioners are neither professional educators nor are they on the way to be.

<sup>1</sup> Julius Rosenwald Fund, Chicago, 1932. 20 pages.



They have never realized that knowing more of local conditions than anyone at a distance will ever know they have a responsibility for making some decisions for themselves. Never having learned that the possession of a good definition of education will enable them to make sound decisions, they continue to demand answers from a Moses who presumably has gained an authority on some mysterious Sinai.

**Development of Ethical Codes.**—Educators can learn something from the development of guides to conduct. In proportion as society became complex, authoritative decisions seemed to be necessary. The heads of families were in larger matters overruled by the chief of the tribe or clan, and he in turn as the size of the group increased was made subordinate to a king. But all the way up the line somebody told what was to be done, judged of right and wrong, and meted out rewards and punishments. When there was a conflict of judgment or opinion, that of the stronger ruler dominated. It was the conflicts among the Israelites, who refused to recognize the authority of Moses, that drove him up the cloud-capped mountain for final direction from Jehovah. When Moses descended with the tables of stone on which the finger of God had inscribed the ten commandments, the people had got the authority that they wanted and possibility of future conflict seemed to be at an end.

But it was not. Although the definite commandments were accepted as authoritative by all the tribes, they did not satisfactorily furnish the guidance that was needed. In the first place, they were mostly negative; they told what *not* to do rather than what was permissible or approved. And in the second place, they concerned few of the problems of conduct that were met daily. Moreover, difficulties of interpretation soon arose; how much work could one do and still keep the Sabbath holy? exactly what was reverence for one's parents? Being accustomed to authorities, the people demanded answers to such questions, and there developed the Scribes and later the Pharisees, who made a specialty of precedents, all of them potent but having no divine sanctions whatever. The inevitable result was formalism—concern with the letter of the law rather than with the spirit.

The world got into a sad mess in its attempt to determine its ethical conduct in accord with definite commands. Sometimes



the authority was disputed; often official interpretation was denied; and usually the spirit of the law was lost. It was such a situation that confronted a Great Teacher, who was concerned with character and who realized that it could not develop without guidance from within. Deprecating none of the ten commandments, He supplemented them with another: Do unto others as you would wish others to do unto you. No sooner was this new commandment proposed than the formalists attacked it. Doubtless they said that it violated the established law, that it lacked authority, that it was not sufficiently definite, that it was impracticable because the people had insufficient imagination, ingenuity, and courage, and that, in short, it would never do because it impeached their own official influence. But the Master, concerned with growth in character rather than with conduct, which might be formal and insignificant, simply insisted that the new rule be tried. It has become not only the most satisfactory guide to conduct ever devised but also the most potent stimulus to the development of strong and stable character.

No authoritative imposed directions for education could long continue to be satisfactory. In the first place, it is not likely that we could agree on the "authorities" who would indicate what schools should do. If there could be found those who are entirely confident in their own minds that certain procedures are the best for the education of all youth everywhere, their prescriptions would be rejected by many, probably the majority of teachers, who would deny their competence to say authoritatively what should be done. In the second place, the interpretation of prescriptions, however definite, would so vary as to bring about such divergencies, conflicts, and doubts as now exist. In the third place, conditions differ from community to community, from school to school, from room to room, and from day to day so that what might seem wise in theory for general practice would obviously need to be modified for each peculiar situation. As a matter of fact, the same procedures under varied conditions would produce different results. The same reactions are not expected when sulphuric acid combines with different bases. And, finally, working under orders given from without never results in the inner growth of power that is recognized as necessary for professional competence. The



idea, then, of direction of education by "authorities" is not only bad; it is also impracticable. Supervision must work toward inculcating understandings that will provide the inner drive as well as the direction of education. Such understandings will be based on a clear concept of a definition of education.

With recognition of the fact that we do not yet possess a sufficient understanding of our society and of its ideals and that consequently philosophies of education, even those that are carefully thought through, must be tentative and to a considerable degree contradictory and incomplete, it is postulated that supervisors and teachers need a concept of education that will be usable under any conditions, anywhere, and with helpfulness in promoting any accepted ideals. The following is proposed. It is in two parts, and the first should always be supplemented by the second, which will be discussed on later pages.

### THE GOLDEN RULE OF EDUCATION, PART I

*The first duty of the school is to teach pupils to do better the desirable things that they will do anyway.*

This statement, being composed only of words in the common vocabulary, seems at first reading entirely clear. It may even lack the impressiveness it might have if expressed in more technical and difficult phrases. But experience has shown that only a reader with the habit of thinking for himself is able immediately to see its implications. At this point stop and decide what are the questions that one must ask himself, whether as the imaginary Swiss father Robinson or as a teacher in a normal secondary school, before he can proceed to act under its direction.

**I. What Will Pupils Do?**—The first question of course is, What are the youth who are to be educated likely to do in the immediate or remote future? Confronting this question the average teacher, habituated to following conventional practices and accustomed to seek direction from others, shrinks from the responsibility of prophecy. And yet someone must prophesy. As a matter of fact, every teacher every day does assume that the pupils under his care will read, will use certain principles of science and of government, will need very definite skills in mathematics, will have indicated social relations and respon-



sibilities, and the like. Teachers should recognize that they are already making assumptions daily as to the future activities of their pupils and they should continue to make them with wide-open eyes, conscious of the need in terms of a general program of education.

*What similar people do.* The best means of foretelling what any given group of pupils will do in the future is to consider, first, what they are doing at the present, and, second, what the adults such as they are likely to become—their older brothers and sisters, for instance—are now doing. The future should mean the next hour and the next day as well as the years of maturity. Although one can expect a certain degree of error in making such prophecy, it is not likely to be as large as that made by remote “authorities” who are not familiar with the individual pupils and with the environment in which they live. It can be assumed with great confidence that any group of youth in a secondary school will read newspapers, in varying degrees be concerned with local politics, marry and be given in marriage, drive automobiles, and work for a living, to list only obvious answers to the question under consideration. What newspapers they will read and how they will read them, what sorts of local politics they will be confronted with and how they are likely to act under them, and the like can be guessed with less certainty, but the teachers who know the community are likely to have a better notion than anyone at a distance can possibly have.

Of course there may be great changes, bringing new conditions that invalidate many guesses as to the future. The effects of the invention and popularization of the automobile, the moving picture, and the radio, for instance, could not have been foretold by the schools of a generation ago, nor could the migration of certain boys and girls to communities with environments of greater or lesser richness of opportunity. But unexpected changes occur in every field of responsibility—in farming, in manufacturing, in investments, in the social life of the family, and in the church, for instance.

The possibility or even the certainty of such unpredictable changes does not relieve those with responsibility from the obligation to prepare as wisely as they can for what may reasonably be expected. When unusual changes come, adjustment must be made in light of the new conditions. It is far better to pre-



pare for what may reasonably be expected than for what there is every evidence to think is not likely to occur. In few communities do people continue to read for pleasure the literature taught in many schools; a very small number of adults use the algebra and geometry required by most curricula; the great majority of men and women never open again a book written in the foreign language that they were permitted or encouraged to study for two or more years. Experience did not justify an expectation that they would do these things. The schools taught them largely because they were not willing to assume responsibility for prophesying, on the basis of the observation of common practice, what the youth were likely to do.

There has been manifest a distinct tendency during recent years to prepare youth for what it seemed likely they would do. Spelling lessons from the dictionary were superseded by books listing words that teachers thought people ought to be able to spell, words frequently characterized chiefly by difficulty; and these "spellers" have in turn been replaced by lists of words resulting from careful counts of frequencies in use. This change has been a result of the assumption that the words which people have used in the past are the best indication of the words people will use in the future. Introductory lessons in modern foreign languages formerly were based on vocabularies that the authors of texts selected, sometimes largely to illustrate grammar rules; today as a result of painstaking studies we have counts of the frequency of use of words, idioms, and constructions, which no author of a textbook could neglect with hope of wide adoptions. "Cases" of factoring in algebra have been dropped because they proved to be seldom used. Composition assignments are now largely based on the kinds of writing that men and women are known to do.

The tendency is toward preparing youth to do better what they are likely to do, but the consequent changes in the curriculum and in the methods of its presentation are only in their beginning. They need to be vastly extended before secondary education gets into high gear.

*Job analysis.* Another evidence of the tendency to teach youth in school to do better the things that they will later do anyway is the frequency with which courses of study have been based on "job analysis." After close observation and careful



records, lists have been made of all the duties performed by a worker of a special type, such as a secretary, a salesgirl, or an insurance agent. These duties have been analyzed to ascertain what training is necessary to enable the worker to perform them more efficiently. The importance of job analysis for vocations is obvious, but there is no reason why the same techniques should not be applied to intellectual and cultural activities. One junior college has based much of its curriculum on diaries kept for a year by a large number of women, who recorded practically everything that they did. These data made possible a job analysis of the duties of a housewife. The college assumed that the composite record foretells with a large degree of accuracy what the students will be called on to do after they leave school, and so it has prepared courses intended to educate them to do these things better.

*A challenge to research.* Scientific studies have already contributed something to make more reliable prophecy of what pupils will do later; they can contribute much more when they are directed toward the satisfaction of the obvious need. Research students have a challenge to assemble data regarding the practices in all fields of experiences. They will accept this challenge when the demand from the field becomes sufficiently urgent. Progress will be assured and accelerated when supervisors and teachers in secondary schools demand help to foretell what people are likely to do, when becoming conscious of the relative uselessness of many conventional topics they refuse longer to teach them, and when they themselves boldly attempt to forecast probable needs in terms of the activities which men and women such as their pupils are likely to become are actually doing. Teachers can by earnest and continued effort make many improvements in courses of study and in providing other educative experiences now seldom in the program if they will attempt honestly to base their teaching on what they know is done by adults and on what they confidently expect their pupils will do.

*Adjustment a primary responsibility.* Obviously the first part of the concept of education now being discussed looks toward the adjustment of youth to life as it is. That ought to be the first purpose of education. Although it is highly desirable that common practices be improved, that the whole tone of society be raised, every individual must begin by adjusting



himself at least to the majority of the practices which the adults of his kind approve and follow and by learning to do better what he is likely to do anyway. The contribution of education to elevating society, to promoting higher ideals and of making them realities, will be treated at some length in considering the second part of the concept of what education should be.

**II. What Is Desirable?**—The second question to be asked by one who attempts to use the proposed concept of education as directive of action is, Which of the things that these students will do are desirable? More practically the question should be, How desirable are the things that these students will do later, with or without special preparation for effectiveness? Again the average teacher hesitates to express a judgment since definite and generally approved criteria are lacking. Faced with a list of probable activities, such as planning a business trip by railroad, attending a symphony concert, selecting and arranging furniture for a living room, and deciding on a candidate to support for a political office, one may very properly recognize that he does not know with finality which activity is the most and which the least important, even for a well-known individual at a given time. But someone has to decide on relative values before a curriculum or a course of study can be made. Someone has to decide in the "activity schools" which experiences are most promising of growth for the pupils. And the "someone" who makes the decision frequently knows less about the community, the pupils, and the probable activities of the future than do the teachers who are hesitant to express their judgments.

In the daily classroom procedures teachers manifest no reluctance to pass judgment as to relative worths. Continually they are saying, "This is a better form," "I think this is a better way," and "Do this now; you can do that which is less important at your leisure." It is the very essence of good teaching to make judgments of relative values and to teach pupils how to make them. There is general agreement that youth should learn to take responsibility for thinking for themselves and thus for coming to sound conclusions about the worth of the tasks that they may undertake. There should be equally general agreement that teachers should assume responsibility for judging the worth of the experiences proposed, by them or by others, for youth to have as contributory to the educative process.



It is not argued that the judgments of teachers will be infallible or that they will always be in agreement even in the same situations. Neither are the judgments of expert curriculum makers or of textbook writers always in agreement even in the same situations. As a matter of fact, by the very nature of things there can be no absolute and final judgment of values. One activity may have high value in one situation at one time for one person and a low value in another situation or at another time or for another person. The assumption that values are permanent has done ineffable harm to education. Would it not be safer for teachers to extend with confidence their practice of passing judgment on daily classroom procedures to evaluating units of instruction and learning experiences that are proposed for the education of the youth entrusted to them? If growth by teachers in professional competence is an objective of supervision, as it assuredly is, then the supervisor should encourage teachers, both as individuals and as groups, to make judgments of relative values and to stand for them courageously until they are proved to be wrong.

Of course many teachers when confronted with the responsibility will be inclined to give undue weight to what is traditional. Not being accustomed to make decisions of their own in the larger matters of the educational program, they will assume, sometimes without reason, that somewhere in the past "authority" has approved some customary unit of education and that it is therefore eternally good. It should be obvious after a moment's thought that such is not the case. The ability to read Latin was an essential for scholars at a time when all erudition was recorded in that language; but conditions have changed. Knowledge of technical grammar was essential when all students studied foreign languages primarily as a mental discipline; but almost none do this today in the better schools. Every person who intends to be a surveyor (and others who plan to enter upon similar professions, of course) must know trigonometry; but in a public high school the number of prospective civil engineers is small and the fascinating subject has less general value than it was formerly assumed to have. The reasons that influenced "authorities" in making decisions as to values should be considered by teachers when they are confronted with responsibility for judging what should be taught to the pupils entrusted



to them for education, and these reasons should be supplemented by others that are contemporary and local.

*The criterion of frequency.* There are criteria that every judge of values should use. The first is the criterion of *frequency*. Other things being equal, the activity of greatest frequency will have the greatest value. It is more important to know how to care for coryza, the common head cold, than for the rare jungle fever. It is more important to know first how to enjoy the humor of Ring Lardner or of the comic strips than the comedies of Aristophanes or the humorous Greek terra cotta figurines. It is more important to understand how to participate in ward politics than it is to be able to trace the progress of a revenue bill through the English parliament in the seventeenth century. It is more important to know how to practice good manners in everyday social life than to be an expert on the mores of the Australian bushmen. Such things are more important because their use is more frequent. Unless they are known, any person is likely to be handicapped in meeting the demands of modern life.

The criterion of frequency applies to principles and to techniques as well as to activities. In every field of learning there are more principles and theories and hypotheses and techniques than can be even considered, to say nothing of learned, by secondary school pupils of any kind of ambition and of any degree of competence. Gresham's Law and Grimm's Law and the Malthusian theory and the nebular hypothesis and the technique of pouring acids upon bases find one justification by the frequency which experience shows they are likely to have for one studying economics, philology, sociology, astronomy, or chemistry. As will be indicated presently, something occurring with low frequency may have another reason for being valuable. But the primary criterion is that of frequency. One is taught the multiplication table up to 9 x 9 but not beyond or to spell *separate* rather than *phthisic* or to express purpose by *ut* or *qui* with the subjunctive rather than by the supine in *-um* because he is more likely to need the knowledge frequently in the future.

*The criterion of cruciality.* Another criterion of values is *cruciality*. Some needs which occur but seldom are of major importance because of disastrous effects when they cannot be



satisfied. In a large university it was proposed to construct a part of the curriculum for a drug clerk on the data accumulated from an analysis of a large number of prescriptions filled in various drug stores. From the study of these prescriptions the frequency was found of the demand for the several drugs in the pharmacopoeia and of the duties that the pharmacist was called on to perform. But there was not one occurrence of any poison in dangerous amounts. Because it was considered crucial that a drug clerk should know the common poisons, the symptoms resulting from dangerous doses, and the effective antidotes, these were properly added to the course of study. A demand for such knowledge may occur seldom, but when it does occur it is crucial.

A person dies but once, only rarely does he fall by accident into deep water, perhaps he attends the opera only a few times a year, he may make a voyage to Italy once in a lifetime, he may be invited to attend a luncheon in the White House, or a rare comet may flame in the skies. What is it worth to have a knowledge of how to behave in such rare circumstances? Again and inevitably judgment has to be made as to relative values. Collision insurance for automobiles is expensive though costly accidents are rare. One man decides that it is worth the cost; another decides to carry his own risk. It would be relatively easy to teach all secondary school pupils the "manners" necessary to lunch at ease and without embarrassment at the White House, but it is costly not merely in dollars and cents but also in the time that might be devoted to something more likely to occur or more crucial when it did occur.

Judgment has to be made, then, on the chances that a need will occur and also on an estimate of how crucial it would be. French is taught in our schools rather than Turkish because of the assumption that it is more likely to be used by the pupils in the future. It can hardly be justified by the cruciality of the need if it did occur. If a person should enter the diplomatic service, a knowledge of the French language would doubtless be helpful. Would diplomatic success depend on it? Employment as a stenographer in one of the few offices in our country where letters are dictated in Spanish to residents of the Argentine or of Cuba would depend on command of that language. It would be crucial in importance for the very small number that



secured such position, but that is very far from saying that Spanish should be a required, or even be an elective, subject in the commercial curriculum of our high schools.

The criterion of cruciality must be applied with judgment in determining the curriculum of education, and for this judgment teachers should assume a share of the responsibility. It is not sufficient to assume that the judgment will or can be properly made by distant authorities so that values will officially be determined for every situation. Such judgments as authorities are competent to make are based upon data and reasons, and such data and reasons should be considered by teachers who are attempting to discover what may best be taught to the boys and girls whom they know intimately, and the cruciality of whose needs they are more likely to judge truly than could anyone remote. What is assuredly crucial to one person in its actual occurrence may be of trivial importance to another even if he should meet with it. Therefore even this criterion can be applied only with the prognostication of teachers. As nobody *knows* all the things that will be crucial, somebody has to make the best guess possible, and who is more competent to do it than the teachers? Who is more likely to make better decisions?

Something may be crucial of itself, or it may be of necessary importance as a means to something else. In the practice of education we are challenged most commonly to decide the relative importance of proposed means to predetermined ends. Having agreed that a certain kind of citizen is desired, teachers have to make constant judgments of the value—often of the cruciality—of knowledge, activities, or attitudes in achieving the objective. The tendency is constantly to neglect the ultimate objectives in making judgments about this or that detail, which is just as impossible as to decide on the value of a gargoyle or a flying buttress without considering the whole building for which it is proposed as a part. If one is to read a foreign language, it is crucial for him to possess a vocabulary; but no one knows all the meanings of all the words even in his own language. Therefore the criterion of frequency must be applied in selecting the vocabulary to be taught. Knowledge of the meaning of a certain word or idiom may be crucial in understanding the meaning of a sentence, but the sentence itself may contain nothing of value when it is translated.



Teachers are very likely to be unduly influenced by tradition when making a judgment of the cruciality of details of knowledge. They often exclaim, "Why, everybody must know that!" when it is perfectly apparent that the majority of mankind attain reasonable success in their lives without using that particular knowledge or ever having possessed it. It is wrong to assume either that everything new or that everything old is because of its age essential or useless. It is wise to demand that everything prove its value in the curriculum, and proof should depend on the judgment of those who know the pupils, their environment, and their most probable future needs; its value will be determined by the best estimates possible of the frequency with which the need will occur and its importance in vital outcomes.

*The criterion of generality.* Another criterion is that of *generality*. Ideally education should be adapted to the specific abilities, capacities, and probable needs; but actually programs are prepared for groups of youth as homogeneous as may be. Although in mass instruction many adaptations are made by ingenious means for individuals, economy demands a large amount of planning for classes as groups. And for groups the more generally important knowledge and skills and aptitudes are likely to be, the more important they are as objectives in the curriculum. It is evident that such topics as "sharing happily in local community life," "listening appreciatively to good music over the radio," "understanding how to save and invest money," and "how to use a public library" are more important than topics like "the succession of Merovingian kings," "the atomic weights of the elements," or "the graphic method of solving equations with two unknowns." The former group obviously have more general value than the latter; more of the pupils will assuredly need and use the knowledge that a study of them will impart.

It is not an unknown practice for some of our secondary schools to submit an entire class to the requirements of a curriculum which may have a high, or even a crucial, value to a few pupils but which assuredly will contribute little to the growth and the effectiveness of the majority. This practice is sometimes justified by the intention of developing leaders, a function of the secondary school that is highly important and should not



be neglected; but it should be accomplished by other means that do not neglect the needs of the majority, who also have rights and who are by no means unimportant in a democratic society. The needs that are general are important to prospective leaders as well as to their less gifted associates, and only after general needs, which usually are frequent and sometimes are crucial, are satisfied can special provision be properly made for those with aptitudes for leadership of various kinds.

The real reason why the majority is neglected for the few is probably that for the academically gifted there is already prepared a very definite curriculum which has the sanction of long use. It is easier for schools to administer this curriculum to the whole group, even though experience shows that the majority neither succeed in it at the time nor continue its study to later profit, than it is to introduce experiences of assuredly general values. Whether this academic curriculum is best at the present time even for the gifted is not discussed here.

*The criterion of permanence.* The final criterion of value to be presented is that of *permanence*. There are many experiences that are frequent and also general, but which result in satisfactions that are temporary and even trivial. It is obvious without argument that learning which will continue, usually with increasing effectiveness, to give lasting satisfactions is more important than that which is transient in value. The study of literary classics, though sometimes for various reasons not so successful as it should be, is more important than the study of short stories in current magazines, for the former when well selected and skillfully taught result not only in a technique of pleasurable reading but also in a body of knowledge which experience has shown is of permanent value. Who can recall two short stories that he read a year ago in the popular magazines? And who having once known them will ever forget Becky Sharp, Silas Marner, Macbeth, Hephzibah Pyncheon, or Wordsworth's sonnet "It is a beauteous evening, calm and free"?

It is more important to learn of the development of the power of the English people over the exchequer than to memorize the details in Macaulay's history. It is more important to remember the principles of science, such as that nothing is uncaused and that inheritance follows certain general principles, than to



master a table of valences or to be able to diagram the digestive system of *bufo Americanus*. It is more important to know and to appreciate the symphonies of Beethoven, the sculpture of Michael Angelo, and the architecture of the Parthenon than the syncopations of the modern dance, the sand figures on the beach at Atlantic City, or the newest residence in the community. The reason obviously is that some knowledge has general and permanent values while other knowledge has values that are only specific and for the majority of people temporary. There is no intention of deprecating the specific and the temporary; that has justifications of its own. Much of it should be taught, but with recognition of what it is and of how it is preparatory to learning that which will give more general and more lasting satisfactions.

With these four criteria, then, of frequency, cruciality, generality, and permanence a supervisor can develop in a group of teachers not only a greater amount of competence to judge the values of what is in the curriculum or of what may be proposed for it, but also respect for their own judgments and courage to act on them. The judgments of others who are more learned or more experienced should be approved only when the supporting reasons are convincing. Often, perhaps usually, they are sound; but their chief value is to suggest what has not been considered, and by their justifying reasons to indicate how other topics and experiences may be evaluated. Teachers who learn to judge relative values for themselves and to follow their judgments courageously, even to the point of a violent break with tradition, are on the way to professional growth. Those who shrink from the responsibility, who depend on "authorities" (whose weight usually increases with the distance from the activity) and who flinch from teaching what their intelligence indicates as best can never be more than artisans in the profession.

**III. How to Do Better.**—The third question to ask in using the stated concept of education is, How can I teach these youth to do the desirable things that they will do anyway better than they would without instruction? Anyone competent to be a teacher can give an answer to the question. The more competent the teacher, the better the answer. It involves, of course, an ideal of how the activity should be performed and skill in



the techniques of instruction. First the teacher must decide how newspapers ought to be read, how measurements ought to be made, how convincing talks should be prepared and delivered, how one should protect himself from contracting contagious diseases, or how one should select and wear suitable and becoming clothes; and then he must arrange the promising learning situation and devise the techniques that will develop the proper reactions, including knowledge, skills, attitudes, and habits. This question will seem an easier one for teachers and supervisors to answer than the two preceding.

## THE GOLDEN RULE OF EDUCATION, PART II

The second part of the statement of the concept of education proposed for guiding teachers in planning and in carrying on their work consonant with such philosophy as they have is as follows:

*Another duty of the school is to reveal higher activities and to make them both desired and maximally possible.*

This supplements the first statement given on page 219 and together with it constitutes the Golden Rule of Education, which guides but does not restrict teachers who are ready to assume responsibility for a share in developing an educational program in which they believe and to which therefore they can devote themselves with wholehearted enthusiasm. It does not tell them precisely what to do, but it gives them such direction that they can find out details for themselves. It is not authoritative, but it appeals to common sense. If not of convincing value, it should be replaced by something that is. It is clear, being so simply stated that no one can have difficulty in ascertaining its meaning. It is sound in that it is usable with any philosophy of life and of education. It is comprehensive, applying equally well to all types of activity, to methods of teaching and learning, and to behavior as well as to the curriculum. It is adaptable to all conditions, times, and localities. It is pragmatic in that it urges the teacher to do something, not merely to know something. And it is restricted only by the limitations of possibility. Any success in attempts at application leads to so much gain in educational growth. Any teacher attempting consistently to use it will develop professional power and a comforting sense of independence.



The second part of the Golden Rule assumes that the school has attempted to teach pupils to do better the desirable things that they will do anyway. But its application should not await the completion of the first challenge. The two should be attempted to a large extent simultaneously, emphasis on the second increasing with the development of the pupils. There are some commonly performed activities that are never done perfectly and habitually, at least during school life, and there are others in which perfection is more readily attained, or at least satisfactorily approximated. But the possibilities in the field of those things which will not be done without such revelation that makes them desired are unlimited. As power is gained in doing the common things well, there is increased opportunity for learning to want and to accomplish better ones.

**I. What Are Higher Activities?**—The first question to be asked when attempting to use this second and supplementary statement is, of course, What are higher activities? The word "higher" implies that from the point of view of the teacher they are desirable. What are higher types of music than people will listen to without instruction? What are higher and better ways of enjoying it? It is assumed that most people will listen to simple popular music with a sensuous enjoyment of rhythm, melody, and perhaps harmony, and that the first effort of the school will be to lead them to do this better. But there is a world of wealth in music that has been revealed only in part, if at all, to the uninstructed. There are the quartettes of Hayden, the symphonies of Beethoven and Brahms, the chamber music of Schumann and Schubert and Mozart, the sonatas of Chopin, the concertos of Sibelius, the oratorios of Bach and Handel, and the operas of Verdi and Wagner. They are not in the common experience, nor can they be appreciated by naïve listening. They have to be introduced to youth, and in such way that they seem desirable; and means of appreciation have to be taught so that enjoyment is maximally possible. The appreciation of the techniques of music is not possible without instruction, nor can that of the sensuous\* phases or of the connotative richness be full without the leadership of one who himself knows its enjoyment and can share it with others.

Decision on what are higher activities—in science, mathematics, expression, home-making, civics, and the other fields—



makes the same demands as selecting what are desirable among the common experiences of life. Someone must apply criteria that appeal to him as sensible and decide what are the higher activities that seem desirable for youth to experience successfully. And from the list of higher activities he must select those that he thinks are relatively richest in possibilities for the pupils to be profited. Existing curricula are full of details that have been considered higher. Each one of them should be considered without prejudice by the teachers who are responsible for the local educative program, who know the pupils and their environment, and who are willing to venture from their knowledge a judgment as to what is most likely to be maximally profitable and possible. Not only this, teachers should be alert to supplement existing curricula and courses of study with additions of their own.

*In the conventional curriculum.* Ideally it may be desirable to select higher activities regardless of their relationship to organized courses of study. But practically it may be assumed that for some time to come instruction in most secondary schools will be organized in such traditional subjects as English, physics, social studies, art, and the like. Therefore the responsible teachers of such subjects may well begin by asking what are the desirable and possible activities in them. What are higher types of literature than people unguided will read? And what are better and more effective ways of reading them for enjoyment and profit? What are the higher principles of physics and how best can they be mastered and made desired for the satisfaction of human wants? What are the duties and privileges of a citizen that he will neither appreciate nor successfully experience without instruction? It is by carefully and continually considering such questions that teachers will develop a list of higher activities from which they may select with an eye to relative values and to possibilities of attainment in making courses of study that contribute most assuredly to the growth of youth beyond the experiences that without instruction they normally would have. Thus the world is opened and growth into a greater share in its richness is made possible.

*In the new curriculum.* Teachers who are ambitious to extend the curriculum beyond conventional subjects and perhaps to abolish the latter altogether, as some "progressive schools"



have done, may supplement the procedure just stated by listing from their observations and from reference to their ideals higher activities of all kinds regardless of their relations to such subjects as chemistry, industrial arts, or Latin. They will be helped by selecting a small number of people whom they consider exceptionally successful in living and listing their characterizing activities. This one is rich in intellectual interests, that in the success of his civic leadership; this one is ingenious in organization, that in carrying on social conversation on high levels of interest and profit; this one reads newspapers so that he carries in his mind a continuity of development of the most valuable items, that one has learned how to make and to keep friends; this one has with small resources brought up a family that is a credit to him and an inestimable asset to society, that one has succeeded in building up a successful business because it supplies the public needs and satisfies its requirements. The characteristics of such people are often brought into high relief by comparison with those of other citizens who are considered less successful in significant matters. An analysis of the activities of citizens who are successful in many phases of life will result in rich suggestions for the new curriculum.

The more numerous the novel suggestions are and the more they diverge from the usual topics of instruction, the greater the responsibility of teachers for selecting what should be taught and for developing suitable teaching units and methods. Some of them can be incorporated into existing courses of study for their enrichment or for their improvement by the displacement of less valuable materials. Others will indicate the need of new units of instruction of varying lengths. Secondary education has been hitherto hampered by the notion that every "subject" should be so organized as to consume exactly one semester or one year. In the program of the future we may look for at least a part of the program to be composed of units of varying length, perhaps extending from one day to several weeks, to whatever length of time is necessary for their effective consideration. It is not too much to suggest that some provision can now be made for short units that do not exactly fit in with courses as ordinarily organized; perhaps they can be cared for in home-room periods or in the activity program. But with increasing maturity pupils appreciate and apparently profit



from a certain amount of related continuity in their studies. In such novel units teachers will have the greatest freedom for the expression of their ingenuity and for consequent development of professional spirit and competence which will eventually modify the secondary school curriculum and perhaps replace it with a better one.

**II. How Make Higher Activities Desired?**—Although secondary schools are notoriously conservative and so have failed to introduce into their curricula many higher activities that are easily recognized as a proper part of the education of good citizens, they have been far more successful in presenting higher activities than in making them desired by the pupils. As a matter of fact, many schools have manifested the attitude that it is not their responsibility to make higher activities desired. "Here," they say, "is higher mathematics" or science or what not; "We know that it is good for you. Learn it." The inevitable result is usually a lack of motivation, which makes learning difficult, and an inclination to pursue the study no further than compulsion continues. The fact that fewer than one-fifth of pupils pursue the study of foreign languages beyond a required two years and that there is small election in college of subjects that have been "revealed" in secondary schools should be convincing evidence that it is not sufficient for teachers merely to present activities that they consider "higher." Pupils must appreciate their values to themselves and thus come to desire them.

The second question to be asked, therefore, after such higher activities have been selected as promise the largest contribution to the growth of the pupils is, How can they be made desired? The very first answer is that they must be desired by the teachers themselves as highly important and even essential in their own lives. The contagion of enthusiasm is probably the most important means of stimulating interest. Everyone recognizes his indebtedness to some teacher who was so irradiated by conviction that what he taught was essential to effective living and to the joys of intellectual activity that his students could not fail to share something of the enthusiasm even before they fully understood the inherent and the possible values in it. As a matter of fact, teachers merely by their enthusiasm have not infrequently succeeded in stimulating young people to study



assiduously topics and even subjects that have relatively little of real general or lasting values. On occasion their pupils have persisted long in the pursuit of such subjects, having developed intellectual interests that grow into scholarly activities and satisfactions.

*Discipline.* Enthusiasm for what he teaches is highly desirable in every teacher. Without it he can become at best a skillful technician, clear in exposition and vigorous in drill, but lacking that divine spark which inflames others to emulation and to persisting activity. The aim of the old educational discipline, which still persists in the minds of many as an ideal not for themselves but for youth, is to learn to do difficult and disagreeable things cheerfully and well not because of appreciated values but merely because "they have to be done." Nobody ever learned this; no intelligent adult ever continues without compulsion to try to acquire a habit that would really be a vice rather than a virtue. Democracy does not want citizens who will stupidly follow directions without curiosity as to the worth of the objective. This is what monarchy and fascism may want, but not democracy.

It is true that many pupils learn to continue at difficult, disagreeable, and to them apparently useless tasks, but they stultify themselves in order to acquire something extrinsic that they want—the privilege of remaining in school, escape from censure or the gaining of approbation, or admission to college, where they often placidly continue uneducative tasks so that they may be stamped with a degree. There should be a law prohibiting the misbranding of educational products, as there is of foods and medicines. The success of such discipline is not transferable. After years of doing the difficult and the disagreeable under compulsion in school, every intelligent person immediately ceases to do it when he becomes his own director. All that remains is an intention of making similar requirements of his own children. This does not reflect credit on the human intellect.

*Enthusiasm from appreciated values.* True enthusiasm is the result of conviction that something satisfies one's needs. The best means, therefore, for a teacher to use in making educative experiences desired by pupils is to reveal how they contribute to the satisfaction of present needs or the probable demands of



the future. These satisfactions may be of many kinds, ranging from those that are entirely utilitarian, and from demands of the physical body, to those that are purely idealistic but no less truly real. The satisfaction of demands of the intellect for successful activity is one of the most potent. It manifests itself in a great range, from the transient pleasure in guessing riddles and solving puzzles to the persisting pleasures of scholarly activity. It has a justification in itself, but it is even more valuable when accompanied by the satisfaction of other wants as well. The satisfactions that result from using the intellect to work an "original" in geometry or to translate a difficult passage in Caesar are not to be deprecated; but an equal intellectual satisfaction may result from success in solving a problem that also contributes otherwise to individual or to group happiness.

*Immediate and future values.* The "progressive" in education sometimes goes to the mistaken and uneconomic extreme of assuming that no values should be emphasized except those that are immediate. In infancy attention and interest may not extend beyond a bright object dangled before the eyes; but an evidence of maturity is the increasing span of attention and interest. Adolescence still demands a certain amount of satisfaction of immediate needs, but it also is learning and should be helped to learn that there is less enduring satisfaction from attending to many immediate wants than from preparing for some future ones that are within the range of appreciation as highly important. This is probably what discipline in its best sense means. The desirable planning of activities can come only from a discriminating appreciation of relative values, future as well as present. But honest work and material growth begin in an understanding of the values that are possible to one in any conceived activity. Secondary school pupils should propose tasks for themselves in terms of felt needs or they should understand, approve, and adopt as their own the tasks proposed by their teachers because they promise to satisfy their important and appreciated needs.

*Results of appreciation.* What is desired by pupils will stimulate them to intelligent effort; if it is sufficiently desired, the effort will be persistent also, excluding temptations to distraction by those things which though still worth while are recognized as promising temporary and less important satis-



factions. The desirability should be recognized as inherent in the activity or as leading to further activity of real and permanent value to the individual and to society. It should be as little as possible extrinsic, looking toward satisfactions that are procured by but not closely related to the activity. This statement is guarded because of a recognition that even though less effective, it is better to get desirable information and skills acquired by extrinsic means than not to acquire them at all. Beginnings of success even from forceful compulsion may result in satisfactions that later will develop appreciation of values and intrinsic interest and effort. But it is emphasized that the best beginning is in understanding of assured or probable values, that these should be kept prominently to the fore as the work progresses, and that the most convincing evidence of satisfactions to come are satisfactions realized from day to day. Intellectual effort no more than moral conduct should be rewarded here and now as well as in a hoped-for elysium.

Not only will appreciation of values result in more intelligent work, but it will result in persistence, not merely in school but afterward. The success of education cannot be measured by tests of what youth knows and feels and can do at term-end; it must manifest itself by what the individual does in life outside the school. Though the failure of schools "to impart knowledge" so that pupils attain respectable standards has been widely criticized, it is small in comparison with their failure to make what they do teach so desired that pupils continue to pursue knowledge and to use it for more effective living. Most of the conventional curriculum has in it more values than have been realized precisely because the schools have not assumed the responsibility of making its values understood and the experiences desired by the students to be educated.

**III. How Make Higher Activities Maximally Possible?—** The third question raised by the supplementary statement of the proposed concept of education is, How can the higher activities after they are desired be made maximally possible? This can be answered by teachers who know or can learn the techniques of their craft. Beginning with motivation that results from needs present and future which are appreciated by the pupils, teachers will coöperate with them in deciding what must be learned and they will from day to day seek through



achievement minor satisfactions which obviously contribute to the approved goal. Nothing short of mastery in terms of the need will be satisfactory to either the pupils or the teacher, and persistence of what is learned will be understood to be necessary as long as it makes possible the satisfaction of still persisting want. The challenge of mastery must be accepted by the pupils because they recognize its necessity before there can be substantial hope of permanent success.

The challenge of the teachers is, therefore, to select experiences that promise desirable outcomes, to motivate them by continuously revealing convincing values, to use consistently the techniques that facilitate learning, and to insure from day to day gratifying successes that keep alive a reasonable hope of attaining the ultimate desired goals. It is not sufficient to state at the beginning of a whole curriculum, a course, or even a unit of instruction, that it will lead to such and such successes. Such objectives either should be stated or, better still, developed out of an existing situation so that pupils accept and approve them; then promising procedures should be agreed on; and when successes on the road to the ultimate goals are achieved they should be recognized and enjoyed, thus stimulating to further effort and progress.

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

These two statements of a concept of education are proposed as the Golden Rules to guide teachers and supervisors who wish guidance in thinking for themselves about what should be taught and, as later argued, about the methods to be used. It has been shown that they meet the criteria previously set up. They do not indicate precisely what schools should do; instead, they place on teachers grave responsibility for formulating their own philosophies of education and for selecting the experiences and devising the techniques that make the desired goals probable of achievement. They can be used with equal effectiveness by those who believe in democracy and by those who hold different ideals of society. They demand the acceptance of responsibility, independent thought, ingenuity, courage, and persisting action. Unlike decisive "authority," they stimulate professional growth through the exercise of independent judgment.



These Golden Rules of Education may not prove satisfactory to all who wish help. To some they will not seem sufficiently definite; for reasons already given they are not intended to be definite or conclusive. To some they will not sufficiently indicate the type of social order to which education should contribute; they are intended for guidance in *any* social order, leaving the decision as to what it should be to the philosophy of the reader. If they do not prove helpful, they should not be used, but some similar concept of education that is simple, clear, sound, comprehensive, adaptable, pragmatic, and indicative of what is possible is necessary for everyone who aspires to grow in professional thinking that leads to professional competence. The leader in any field must think for himself. And to think for himself he needs a definition of education. He will use the one proposed or he will devise one himself that is to him more satisfactory.

### EXERCISES

1. Make a list of the influences which in your opinion would restrict attempts to make your school more effective educationally in the experiences that it presents as a curriculum, in the methods of teaching, and in the direction of the behavior of pupils. Decide, first, to what extent these influences are really restrictive and are not merely excuses for not making desired changes; and, second, how you can overcome or at least minimize them.

2. Select some situation, one of those mentioned or another similar one, in which you would be entirely free, and make a list of the important features in the program that you would devise for the education of the youth under your responsibility. Take pains to emphasize the features of the program important on the secondary level.

(a) What does the richness or poverty of the list that one makes indicate regarding his potentialities for educational leadership?

(b) To what extent can you introduce these desired features into the curriculum of your school? How?

(c) Why don't you?

3. After having done Exercise 2, challenge the teachers under your direction to do the same thing.

(a) Emphasize that suggestions should relate to learning experiences, to methods, and to conduct.

(b) Which of them are approved as of important value by the other teachers of the staff?

(c) To what extent can you get the best of these introduced into the curriculum? How?



(d) What was the effect on the teachers of performing this exercise?

4. Compare the effects on character development of accepting authoritatively codes of conduct and of habitually deciding by reference to an accepted principle what one should do.

5. Test the proposed Golden Rule of Education by the criteria discussed on pages 199–207. If it seems in any respect deficient, amend it or replace it by another that fulfills all the requirements.

6. Select five or more activities of your school that you consider of the highest value educationally and see to what extent they are approved by the proposed Golden Rule. If there is not perfect approval, does that indicate that the activity is of less value than you thought or that the definition needs changing? How? If there is perfect approval, does that strengthen your faith in the definition?

7. What are ten of the important activities which the youth of your community are now engaged in and which are neglected in the school curriculum? Are they satisfactorily performed? Is it probable that agencies other than the school will teach youth to do them satisfactorily?

8. How can you help teachers to prophesy better what their pupils are likely to do? How can you increase the teachers' faith in their prophecies?

9. What are the bases upon which prophecies are made by "authorities" and included in textbooks and syllabi?

10. Consult 10 to 20 pages of a textbook on some subject in secondary education and

(a) Make a list of what pupils are expected to do when they study.

(b) Indicate by setting 1 to 5 by each item the likelihood that pupils without teaching or compulsion would do each thing anyway.

(c) Indicate by setting A to E by each item the desirability that they should do each one.

(d) Explain the persistence of the items evaluated 5 (least likely to be done) and E (least desirable).

11. Read for half an hour, preferably in an unfamiliar field, and note what you should like to have been taught by your previous education for your greater effectiveness. Indicate your estimate of the value of each bit of knowledge or of each skill by deciding how much money or time you would be willing to pay for it now.

12. Shop for something (a car, life insurance, an etching, the best book on some subject, a house or an apartment, a jade pendant, or the like) or have an unusual experience (attend an opera or concert, visit a museum, take a trip, meet a notable person, or look for some kind of scientific phenomena in your neighborhood) and similarly make evaluation of revealed desired knowledge.



13. Which of the criteria discussed on pages 225–230 did you use in making the evaluations in the two preceding exercises? Were you less confident in combining and using these criteria to evaluate the revealed needs in relatively unfamiliar experiences than you would be in evaluating requirements of the formal secondary school curriculum? Explain.

14. Following are some topics that students using the Golden Rule have proposed for including in the educational program for youth. Add 10 to 20 similar topics and evaluate the combined list by marking each one 1 (essential), 2 (highly desirable), 3 (desirable), 4 (negligible), or 5 (harmful). Compare the values that you assigned to the topics in Exercises 10 and 14.

- (a) To carry on an interesting and profitable conversation.
- (b) To choose, win, and keep friends.
- (c) To select a suitable mate.
- (d) To judge a lecture and report it accurately.
- (e) To know the law that applies to the most commonly occurring difficulties.
- (f) To select a lawyer, physician, or dentist.
- (g) To buy men's clothes with taste and economy.
- (h) To read advertisements.
- (i) To detect and resist propaganda.
- (j) To select the best type of insurance policy.
- (k) To invest savings wisely.
- (l) To plan and to get the most out of a trip.
- (m) To have a hobby.
- (n) To understand why society provides and controls free education.
- (o) To know and to desire the educational opportunities available after leaving school.

15. Which of the topics considered in the preceding exercise do you consider sufficiently desirable for the education of the youth whom you know to justify their replacing stated topics in the present program?

16. Give several instances of teaching—formally or informally, in school or out—that have revealed higher activities than would otherwise have been appreciated and made them desired. What can you learn from them that is significant for the improvement of the formal educational program?

17. What is convincing evidence that a revealed higher activity is desired by pupils? Explain why the secondary school has accepted so little responsibility for making revealed higher activities desired. How can you increase the acceptance and exercise of this responsibility?



18. Compare the use of the two parts of the proposed Golden Rule of Education in formal schooling and in extra-curricular life. Explain why it should or should not be used equally in each.

19. What does the Golden Rule indicate as to the methods that should be used in learning and in teaching? in study by pupils?

20. What does it indicate as to the requirements for the conduct of secondary school boys and girls?

### BIBLIOGRAPHY <sup>1</sup>

- W. W. Charters, *Curriculum Construction*. The Macmillan Company, 1923, pp. 169-344. Reports of numerous studies of the frequency of activities in various fields.
- W. W. Charters, "The Stephens College Program for the Education of Women," *News Bulletin*, Society for the Study of the Curriculum, Vol. V, No. 5, September, 1934. Three hundred women graduates reported in diaries more than 7500 activities growing out of their personal needs.
- Clara H. Lorenzen, "Approved Social Behavior," pp. 103-110, in *Curriculum Investigations*, University of Chicago Press, 1926. Report on approved social behavior as indicated by an analysis of 11 books and 123 magazine articles on social ethics, and of six books dealing with etiquette.
- Sarah M. Sturtevant and Ruth Strang, "Activities of High School Girls," *Teachers College Record*, 30:562-571, March, 1929. One thousand daily records secured through 152 deans.
- W. V. Forman, "The Use Made of Leisure Time by Junior High School Pupils," *Elementary School Journal*, 26:771-774, June, 1926. Report of how 175 boys spend their leisure time and of how they would like to spend it.
- Harvey C. Lehman, "Play Activities of Persons of Different Ages," pp. 150-180, in *Curriculum Investigations*, University of Chicago Press, 1926. Analysis of the play activities of 16,568 persons ranging from eight to twenty-two years of age.
- Mabel Hastie and Geraldine Gorton, "What Shall We Teach Regarding Clothing and Laundry Problems?" *Journal of Home Economics*, 18:127-133, March, 1926. A study of the actual sewing and laundry problems in approximately 4500 rural and urban homes.
- Martha H. French, "The Homemaking Vocations: A Proposed Method of Job Analysis as a Basis for Courses of Instruction and Training," *Vocational Education Magazine*, 1:211-213, November, 1922.
- L. Thomas Hopkins and Kate W. Kinyon, *Home Economics*, Research Monograph No. 1, Denver, Colorado, Public Schools, 1926. An

<sup>1</sup> Several of these items were found in Draper's *Principles and Techniques of Curriculum Making*. They are used with the permission of the publishers, D. Appleton-Century Co.



analysis of the home economics activities of 5106 junior high school and senior high school girls.

- F. G. Nichols, "Survey of Junior Commercial Occupations," *Bulletin No. 54*, pp. 42-50, Federal Board for Vocational Education, June, 1920. List of duties performed by boys and girls under 18 years of age.
- F. G. Nichols, "A New Conception of Office Practice," *Harvard Bulletins in Education*, No. XII, 1927. Report of a questionnaire study to discover what is done by clerical workers in large offices.
- B. Frank Kyker, "The Construction of a Commercial Curriculum by Job Analysis," *Balance Sheet*, 11:199-202, March, 1930. A job analysis of more than 400 business concerns.
- W. W. Charters and Isadore B. Whitley, *Analysis of Secretarial Duties and Trades*. Williams and Wilkins, 1924.
- C. E. Steidtman and A. J. Scott, "What Shall We Teach in Household Mechanics?" *Industrial Education Magazine*, 26:192-195, January, 1925. A study of actual repair tasks in the home.
- T. G. Sievers *et al.*, *Industrial Arts*, Research Monograph No. 4, Denver, Colorado, Public Schools, 1928. Manual activities at home and different processes involved as reported by 3314 high school boys.
- R. E. Berry, *The Work of Juniors in Retail Grocery Stores*, University of California, Part-Time Educational Series, No. 11, 1922.
- Grover H. Alderman, "What an Iowa Layman Should Know about Courts and Law," *School Review*, 30:360-364, May, 1922. Report of a study of 758 cases in a district court to reveal the frequency of different kinds of litigation. One hundred cases were analyzed to discover the general principles of law involved.
- C. O. Wells, *The Political Science of Everyday Life, as Revealed by an Analysis of Newspapers and Periodicals*, Fifth Yearbook, pp. 232-235, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1927.
- Lewis M. Terman and Margaret Lima, *Children's Reading*. D. Appleton and Co., 1926. Report of 10,000 records of children's reading.
- "Report of Committee on Place and Function of English in American Life," *English Journal*, 15:110-134, February, 1926. Report of the language activities of 2615 people who were engaged in 253 occupations.
- James Beatty, Jr., "Antiquemania—a Challenge to Teachers of Literature," *Clearing House*, 9:437-440, March, 1935. Report of the reading for their own satisfaction by 200 high school pupils.
- Vera Elder and Helen S. Carpenter, "Reading Interests of High-School Children," *Journal of Educational Research*, 19:276-282, April, 1929. A report of the books and magazines liked by 487 New York City high school girls, with the types of fiction pre-



ferred and their attitudes toward certain physical features of books.

Allan Abbott, "Reading Tastes of High-School Pupils," *School Review*, 10:585-600, October, 1902. A report of the estimates by 2469 high school pupils of books that they had read.

Roy Ivan Johnson, "Determining Standards in English Composition I," *School Review*, 36:757-767, December, 1928. This study reports 54 desirable characteristics of good conversationalists as derived from interviews, questionnaires, selected readings, and listed individual difficulties; these traits are also reported as ranked in the order of importance by 79 judges.

Roy Ivan Johnson, *op. cit.*, II, *School Review*, 37:44-48, January, 1929. Report of desirable characteristics of chairmen and members of round-table discussion groups.

Roy Ivan Johnson, *English Expression*. Public School Publishing Co., 1926. An analysis of the language activities of 104 freshmen and their mothers and of 1000 business and social letters to determine deficiencies and needs.

Robert C. Scarf, "The Mathematics Used in Popular Science," pp. 119-139, in *Curriculum Investigations*, University of Chicago Press, 1926. An analysis of the science articles in a random sampling of five general magazines and three books of popular science.

Francis D. Curtis, *Some Values Derived from Extensive Reading of General Science*, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924. Report of what science people read in newspapers and of questions on science asked by children and by adults. See also Curtis's "A Study of the Scientific Interests of Dwellers in Small Towns and in the Country," *Peabody Journal of Education*, 5:22-34, July, 1927.

M. E. Herriott, "Life Activities and the Physics Curriculum," *School Science and Mathematics*, 24:631-634, June, 1924. A report of the responses of six representative groups of citizens concerning 576 activities (mechanics, heat, light, sound, magnetism, and electricity) as to (1) things they do for themselves, (2) things that necessitate the assistance of experts, and (3) things that they think about.



## CHAPTER XI

---

### PURPOSES FOR TEACHERS

---

**I. Introduction.**—Emphasis has repeatedly been laid in this book on the necessity that teachers should develop a philosophy of education and that they should formulate, approve, and consistently seek the indicated general objectives. It is relatively easy to get teachers to recognize the soundness of this principle and even to avow approval of proposed objectives; but it is a difficult and a never-ending task to induce them into a habit of seeking these objectives consistently in their teaching. It should be obvious that there is no value in formulating large objectives or of giving oral approval to them unless they can be made effective in determining the plans and procedures every period of every day. Large objectives have meaning only as they indicate all the minor objectives sought in every unit of teaching. “The far away point, which is of no significance to us merely as far away, becomes of huge importance the moment we take it as defining a present direction of movement. Taken in this way it is no remote and distant result to be achieved, but a guiding method in dealing with the present.”<sup>1</sup>

*Common practice.* Recall of recitations observed reveals infrequent evidence that the teachers had in mind, either during preparation or while teaching, any objectives beyond those immediately involved in having pupils learn some definite subject-matter or acquire some detailed skill. Secondary school teachers frequently manifest cleverness in making assignments, in arousing interest or challenging effort, in explaining, in questioning, in drill, and in testing; but these are not enough alone to bring about real education. For that it is necessary that there be constant pupil progress toward objectives which together constitute what we understand as real education.

<sup>1</sup> John Dewey, “Foundations of Curriculum Making,” p. 171, Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Public School Publishing Co., 1926.



Much teaching is for the purpose of presenting units that have been developed by others, authors of textbooks or of syllabi; most of it is imitative of teaching previously observed, usually as a pupil. Everyone tends to teach as he was taught. But whatever the manifested skills in detailed techniques, however well someone else has outlined the unit to be experienced, there can be no good teaching unless the teacher himself knows the goal toward which he is attempting to lead the pupils.

*Means used for ends.* Ask the average teacher what he is attempting to achieve in a recitation and he is likely to answer "To get the pupils to understand and apply Boyle's law," "To teach the form of the Petrarchan sonnet," "To give skill in solving equations with two unknown quantities," "To develop an understanding of the causes of the Civil War," or to effect some other objective that is not justified in its isolated statement by its promise of contribution to a worthy goal. These objectives are means, not ends in themselves. Their values lie in what they lead on to after they themselves are mastered. To do an intelligent and an effective job, a teacher must recognize such objectives merely as means to achieving larger and ever larger objectives toward which he looks for direction in all that he plans to do.

It is, of course, not fair to judge a teacher's intelligent understanding of the educative process by his first answer to an unusual question. He should be pressed to tell what the objective that he stated will lead to, immediately and ultimately; and such questioning should be continued until he manifests an understanding that no learning has significance except as it contributes a necessary part to progress toward the large goals which he has previously approved. An attempt to find such significance not infrequently reveals an emphasis that cannot be justified and it also indicates either new units of experience or new values that will inevitably improve the teacher's work. But seeking to evaluate a traditional or imposed unit of instruction, though it is perhaps a necessary procedure, is beginning at the wrong end; the logical approach would be to ask what experiences in history or physics or music (assuming that the curriculum has not been integrated) can contribute most effectively to the objectives that have been approved at a given stage of the pupil's development.



*The whole equals the sum of its parts.* Because an observed period of instruction does not manifest a consciousness on the teacher's part of the larger objectives of education it is not fair to conclude that he does not believe in them and use them in his teaching. In defense he may say that he directly sought some approved objective last week or will seek it later, after certain foundations are laid in fact or in principle. That may well be. But the whole of teaching, like the whole of anything else, is the sum of its parts. Unless some consciously directed progress toward a desired goal is made today and some more tomorrow, there is likely to be little by the end of the week.

*The effects of isolated objectives.* Unfortunately the education, professional as well as academic, given prospective teachers has often been deficient in the use of the principle under discussion. The very organization of schools in departments of highly specialized subject-matter and the consequent methods of teaching tend to focus emphasis on the acquirement of facts, principles, and skills, all narrowly restricted in their manifest relationships. Pupils are taught to be satisfied when they know what has been assigned even though they have no idea of its significance. And in the effort to impart knowledge instructors frequently forget to impart the meaning of that knowledge. In the professional schools there is consideration, it is true, of the meaning of education and of the objectives that it implies; but as a rule this consideration is in a theory department, from which students are sent to others to learn subject-matter and the detailed techniques of teaching. In consequence of such education teachers must be re-educated on their jobs by a supervisor if they are to become maximally effective in leading boys and girls to growth in effectiveness.

*Stated objectives neglected.* Not infrequently teachers will when questioned state perfectly good objectives for the experiences that they intend to introduce for their pupils and then in the recitation period give no evidence of their influence in planning or in presentation. Anyone would approve as a worthy objective the teaching of physiology so as to lead to better health habits; but no one could approve consequent lessons that did nothing more than require pupils to name the bones in the body and trace food from the mouth to the elimination



of wastes. Supervision is needed to insure that teachers consistently seek the good objectives that they declare.

*Not all clearly stated purposes are sound.* Many still assume the discredited psychology of automatic transfer of general powers or of the purifying or strengthening effects of disagreeable "discipline." Some are justified by a situation so remotely contingent that they have no probable value. One state department of education, for example, in its official syllabus implied that the purpose of studying French is to prepare for a diplomatic career, as "French is the language of diplomacy." And a college professor stated to his class "One might possibly receive a bequest from a French relative; therefore one should be able to read the will in order to be sure that the correct amount of money has been delivered." Other clearly stated purposes are so lacking in importance that they cannot justify any material amount of time being given to their realization.

## II. Illustrative Lessons.—

*A lesson with poor objectives.* Consider the following outline report of an obviously carefully prepared lesson on Browning's "Incident of the French Camp" and see if you can find objectives that justify it as an important contribution to the education of ninth-grade pupils. First the teacher gave a sketch of Napoleon's life and of the historical situation in which the incident occurred, emphasizing geographical place names and their pronunciation. Then after having the pupils read the poem aloud, the teacher gave three new-type tests as learning exercises. Typical of the test items are the following:

### A. Fill each blank.

1. Napoleon was born in \_\_\_\_\_ which is an \_\_\_\_\_ belonging to \_\_\_\_\_.

2. The incident told in this poem occurred during the \_\_\_\_\_ wars in \_\_\_\_\_.

10. This little island is only about \_\_\_\_\_ miles long and \_\_\_\_\_ miles wide and is situated far out in the \_\_\_\_\_ Ocean between \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_.

### B. Underscore the correct word in each series.

1. Ratisbon is a (wall, city, river, country).

5. While Ratisbon is being stormed, Napoleon is (standing, sitting, lying, walking about) on a mound about a mile away.

7. *Prone* means (sloping, straight, high, low).



C. Write *True* or *False* before each statement.

1. Napoleon is one of the best known men in history.
2. Very few men have done as much good in the world as he.
3. The boy loved Napoleon and was proud to die for him.

From consideration of this outlined recitation one can find no evidence that the teacher had in mind any important objective of education or, for that matter, any real understanding of the literary and ethical values of the poem. He prepared carefully and introduced objective tests; but for what purpose? So far as can be ascertained he intended only that the pupils get historical and geographical information, which in isolation is not of great importance. Some such information is at times necessary for understanding which is basic to appreciation; but the facts here demanded are merely a setting for the incident, which would be significant if it had occurred with General Lee at Gettysburg or with General Caesar in one of the battles with the Helvetians. The teacher concentrates on factual material and entirely ignores the real educative possibilities. Therefore, however much interest was aroused, however laudable the effort to use a new type of teaching test, the lesson must be judged a failure.

*A poor plan is improved by a change of purpose.* Another teacher who had prepared to teach Kipling's story "The Drums of the Fore and Aft" presented to her supervisor a plan for two weeks of work devoted almost entirely to study of the meaning of unusual words. Feeling assured that such study would be wasteful, since many of the unknown words were unimportant and the meaning of them thus learned would probably not be remembered, the supervisor asked the teacher, "How much is a *rupee*?" which was one of the questions in the lesson plan. Besides knowing that it is a small silver coin used in India, the teacher could not say. "Then, Miss M.," the supervisor responded, "if with your education and maturity you have not found sufficient need for this knowledge to make you have it and since having looked it up last evening you do not remember, let's trust these pupils to get along awhile without learning this value with an inevitable distraction from the story.<sup>1</sup> If

<sup>1</sup> This incidental information is very different in importance from that which is essential, like, for example, the meaning of *liquid assets*, *frozen credits*, *ear-marking*, *script*, and *credit* in an economics lesson.



you have only one period to devote to this study," he continued, "what should be the essential questions to ask?" After reflection, the teacher replied, "Were the drummer boys heroes? and what would be necessary for them to fulfill their ambition and become heroic?" Thus a plan with no worthy purpose was changed to promise real values.

*A lesson with good objectives.* With the preceding lesson plans may be compared one, continuing over a number of days, on the better reading of newspapers. One of the major purposes in the large project was to teach pupils to follow a news story, the one selected by way of illustration being a strike of the workers of the A. B. Company. The class first decided that the large questions which they wished to answer in this unit of study were: 1. What caused the strike? 2. What has each side done? and 3. What is the present situation? In attempting to cumulate information by reading various newspapers day by day as the strike developed the pupils found not only much material that was not pertinent and distracting, but also many contradictions. Therefore they faced the problem of contrasting the statements made by the Associated Press and the United Press, the functions and policies of which they had to learn, by partisan organs, and by the weekly news journals. Out of the mass of published material they had to decide what facts were important to influence one's attitude, how to reconcile contradictions, and how to interpret the facts that seemed to be substantiated. They found help in interpretation by studying the articles of such commentators as Dorothy Thompson, Walter Lippmann, David Lawrence, and Mark Sullivan, and editorials in papers representing several different points of view. The class decided that later it would try to answer these important questions:

1. What are the issues involved in the strike? What are the arguments on both sides of each issue?

2. In light of the facts and of the principles involved, what attitude should a good citizen take on each issue?

3. In what ways are the results of the strike likely to affect one individually? society locally and at large?

4. What can and should an intelligent, informed, and conscientious citizen do to help bring about a settlement that promises the most general good?

The teacher who planned this unit evidently had very defi-



nitely in mind a series of purposes all contributing to a large one that is justified by any philosophy of education. The project involved the acquisition of many facts, each one acquired and interpreted because of its obvious need to reach a clearly set goal. It involved also the discriminating understanding, acceptance, and application of basic principles, which either had been studied previously or which had to be acquired before the desired objectives could be achieved. The project is that of a teacher who recognizing the educational significance of his work plans every step to contribute to the objective of reading news stories better, and this in turn he perceives as one important contribution to the making of better citizens.

**III. Hierarchies of Purposes.**—Objectives should be seen in hierarchies. “To teach the ablative absolute” cannot be justified as an end in itself. It has significance only as it is necessary for the translation of Latin, which in turn becomes important only as it leads to the appreciation of classic literature or the understanding of a civilization that contributed to the development of our own. Generally approved objectives are that youth shall be helped to enjoy literature for leisure time and led to understand their own culture so that they may live in it better and more effectively. Similar illustrations can readily be made from other subject fields, like mathematics, science, or English composition.

However clever the teaching of facts and skills, it cannot be educationally effective unless the teacher recognizes their essential values in leading to higher and more inclusive objectives. It may be difficult for supervision to develop teachers so that they select for presentation facts and principles which in their minds are clearly necessary for attaining objectives continuously more important until they are justified by the ultimate goals of education. But before the teaching can be truly effective, teachers must develop this habit. Any extension of the purpose—from the ablative absolute to translation, for example, or from translation to the understanding of Roman civilization—is so much gain, a step toward seeing the whole hierarchy of objectives all the time.

While it is argued that for every recitation unit the teacher should have a purpose, it is not implied that he should have only one. Frequently he will have in mind two or more purposes



that he conceives as practically coördinate in importance and in value. While a plurality of purpose has the advantage of making the educational experience rich, it also carries dangers that none may be satisfactorily achieved and that the pupils will be confused by failure to appreciate relationships. The supervisor should help to prevent these dangers, which is not difficult if the mutual contributions of the several purposes are clear.

For the following summarized lesson the teacher declared in conference that he had nine purposes. The reader will find it profitable to decide (a) which of them is in his judgment most important; (b) which of them are coördinate in value; and (c) how each one contributes to or detracts from the probability that the major purpose or purposes will be achieved.

*Purposes proposed.*

1. To lead pupils to appreciate the hardships, the ingenuity, and the art of their ancestors.
2. To develop the power of using the imagination.
3. To teach the use of reference books, especially to get and to combine for use essential facts for a report.
4. To teach pupils to interpret pictures.
5. To introduce pupils to museums or to increase familiarity with them, and to help them to use museums more effectively.
6. To guide pupils in learning to work better coöperatively.
7. To give opportunity and direction for self-expression in notebooks.
8. To develop the habit of planning use for what is learned or made.
9. To develop the habit of proposing good purposes for their own activity.

UNITED STATES HISTORY—GRADE IX

“Have any of you ever thought of what New York was like before our streets and big buildings were made? Or did you ever think or read of the struggles of the first white settlers in New York?”

Considering the volunteered answers the class learned of early household conditions. The teacher then referred to numerous reference books in the room, giving permission to volunteers to find references to types of utensils used—beds, tables, chairs, and



means used of supplying materials, candles, food, etc. While this material was being found, other pupils were studying pictures supplied by the teacher. After the presentation of this material the class wished to prepare an "Old Dutch New York" notebook, a collection of individuals' reports on phases interesting them.

The teacher's help was asked in locating sources of material. Her suggestions covered the Colonial Wing of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, the American Museum of Natural History, certain specified books, historical houses existing in New York, etc.

Children formed into groups and chose their topics, one or two requesting aid from the teacher.

The teacher suggested that they seriously think of what they would do with their project when completed and be ready with suggestions for the following lesson. The only assignment was that they bring the first fruits of their efforts to class with a definite plan in mind of how they were going to cover their group topics in order to give the information to all.

*A philosophic basis necessary.* It is obvious that before supervision can be maximally effective in this matter it must at least have begun the development with teachers of a philosophy of education which will give meaning to ultimate objectives. Failure to make this basic preparation inevitably leads supervision to concern with details that can have little meaning in themselves and to the improvement of techniques of teaching that are important only as they become means to recognize desirable ends. It is common knowledge that tools can be used with most intelligent effectiveness when the operator knows what he is trying to make.

**IV. The Thesis.**—For the improvement of teaching, then, the following practical thesis is proposed:

*For every recitation unit a teacher should have a purpose that is worthy, definite, and so far as possible specific.*

The recitation unit does not necessarily coincide with the recitation period; it may be shorter or longer. One period may include a review of previous learning for the purpose of stamping it in memory or of affording a basis for the new experience and also the introduction to a new experience. Or one recitation unit may run through several periods, usually being broken into several subordinate units, the relations of each to the whole being clearly seen. Each recitation unit should be considered as a whole to which every detailed part contributes, the whole



itself finding its significance in its contribution to a still larger worthy unit.

The main purpose of each recitation unit should be *worthy* in terms of the accepted philosophy of education and its consequent objectives. It may be that pupils will learn to live together with more social effectiveness, to find their life work, to spend their leisure time pleasantly and profitably, or to prepare for participation in the political duties of citizenship. Each of such purposes will then indicate minor ones that are worthy because contributory to the larger objective. These minor purposes may be illustrated by an intent to teach from a story or poem or history how a person learned to adjust himself to his social group; from a study of vocations the economic possibilities and limitations and also the requirements for success in each so that decision may be made as to whether or not it is attractive for the individual pupils; from music how to understand and appreciate a symphony heard over the radio; from a campaign leading to an election of class officers how practical democratic politics works.

*Major and minor purposes related.* Each of these minor purposes, depending for their values on the larger ones to which it contributes, will in turn indicate still smaller ones that become significant only as they are essential. In the study of literature for the purpose above stated pupils will need to learn to draw conclusions from what is suggested in addition to what is baldly stated, and this may require a study of figures of speech, such as metaphors and irony. In the study of a symphony there will be subordinate worthy purposes to learn the significance of the four major movements, the detection of each theme and its development, and the uses of the several instruments, singly or in combination, as they contributed to that development. Thus it will be seen that the worthiness of a purpose is in terms of its ultimate contribution, however many steps it may be removed, to the large objectives of education.

*Two procedures.* The wisest and most logical procedure would be to begin with each large objective and learn the successively minor ones necessary for its successful attainment. For the practical improvement of teaching, supervision will probably begin by insisting that each procedure, traditional



or proposed as a novelty, be justified in terms of its probable contribution to a purpose which in turn is essential for the achievement of one that is still further remote and still more obviously important in education. The supervisor will doubtless work with the teachers both ways: (1) from ultimate objectives down to worthy purposes that may be sought and achieved in a single recitation unit, thus constantly tending toward the elimination of relatively valueless procedures and the introduction of novel ones of greater value; and (2) from practical details upward to continually larger purposes, helping teachers ultimately to find justification in an objective already approved. The second procedure is more likely to eliminate unsound procedures than to indicate new ones, but it also insures that those that are used will have significant values in the minds of the teachers. Both ways lead to more intelligent and hence more effective work. Both insure professional growth on the part of teachers.

The teacher's purpose for each recitation unit should also be *definite*. This term is used in its etymological sense to indicate a goal that is set off by limits from the complex of general objectives. The purpose should be so definite as to indicate the exact target to be aimed at. It should be of such a size that the goal can be reasonably attained in the time and under the conditions of the recitation unit. To teach pupils to write correct and forcible English is a worthy purpose, but to achieve it the teacher must first lead them more definitely to learn to plan what they wish to say, to use topic sentences, to develop them effectively, and the like. Similarly to teach pupils to understand meteorological laws and to foretell the weather are worthy purposes, but they are achieved only if such more definite purposes as to know what cyclones are and to read a weather map intelligently are first achieved.

Teachers are so accustomed to state their purposes in large terms—like “to teach chemistry” or, somewhat less comprehensively, “to teach qualitative analysis”—that it is sometimes difficult for a supervisor to develop with them the habit of stating definitely their purposes in such size that they are accomplishable in a recitation unit and of always keeping in mind the relations of the definite purposes to larger ones until they all together form a unified hierarchy. The practical re-



sults of consistently attempting this, however, abundantly justify the effort required.

Whenever possible the teacher's purpose for a recitation unit should also be *specific*. To make clear the meaning intended, this term needs to be defined, for neither it nor any other one exactly conveys the idea. In accord with the modern philosophies of education most generally approved, a purpose should be specifically adapted to the pupils and to the time and conditions of the instruction. *Specific*, then, is intended to mean "uniquely adapted to the learning situation." A purpose like "to teach pupils to lay out a right angle," may be worthy and definite, but it becomes specific when the pupils to be taught need right angles for constructing a baseball diamond, a tennis court, or a box. "To teach pupils how to compute latitude and longitude" would become specific when they are genuinely interested in knowing how transoceanic aviators find their way or how land boundaries are fixed. A specific purpose, then, is a motivated purpose. When accepted wholeheartedly because it obviously points to the satisfaction of a recognized need, a purpose becomes specific.

*Purposes stated in terms of action.* The most common statement of purposes by secondary school teachers begins "To teach pupils to know. . . ." While giving the highest respect to knowledge and recognizing that there is no true education that does not involve it in copious amount, modern education has learned that merely "to know" is not a satisfactory objective. Many a scholar has known much and yet been a poor citizen; even Browning's Grammarian with his ideals was a failure. As a matter of fact, knowledge acquires its significance and its values in the uses to which it is put or to which the learner desires to put it. It is all right if the teacher states his purpose as "To teach pupils to know . . . in order that they may do. . . ." It is this ultimate doing that should be evaluated as an educational objective. If it is worthy and important, it will require knowledge, which the learner will seek more eagerly, learn more quickly, evaluate more justly, retain longer, and use more assuredly and more effectively than if it is set merely as an end in itself. The word "do" should not here be interpreted narrowly as indicating only physical activity, especially of a utilitarian kind. It should include also evaluation, judgment, imagina-



tion, planning, promotion, achievement of many kinds, appreciation, and the development of potent persistent attitudes. A supervisor can render a great service by influencing teachers to use purposes that look beyond the mere acquiring of knowledge, especially that in isolation or justified only by its part in a logical organization of subject-matter, with values that are remote and vaguely contingent. He will reveal a greater respect for knowledge when he insists on its importance in leading to something worthy and desired.

*Alternative characteristics of purposes.* A teacher's purpose may be sound or unsound as judged by any accepted criteria; it may be of great or of little value in its contribution to approved educational objectives; it may be intelligent or mechanically traditional; it may be of convincing worth or accepted blindly because "authoritatively" proposed; it may be seen leading to a worthy end or divorced from function; it may be sufficiently delimited to direct effort or it may be so general as to require merely indefinite and unintelligent effort; it may be specifically adapted to the learning situation or general with a hope that its need will some day become apparent. When purposes actually range between all of these extremes, a supervisor is challenged to help each teacher make his own as consistently as possible worthy, definite, and specific.

*A purpose should be obvious in use.* It is reasonable to assume that an experienced and attentive observer of an entire recitation unit will be able to recognize what a teacher's main purpose is. Whether or not it is stated to the class, it should so influence the teacher's plan and every procedure that it will be unmistakably obvious. If it is not obvious, the probability is that it was not effective. But in order to emphasize in the mind of the teacher the importance of the dominant purpose the supervisor may well from time to time ask, "Just exactly what did you intend to accomplish in the recitation unit that I observed?" Early in every supervisory conference there should be agreement by the supervisor and the teacher as to what the purpose was, otherwise there will assuredly be confusion and misunderstanding in the subsequent discussion. Few supervisory conferences can be maximally helpful unless the purpose of the recitation unit is considered.

The thesis proposed is basic to the direction and the stimula-



tion of a teacher's professional growth. Unless he develops the habit of planning and working in terms of definite purposes worthy in terms of their recognized necessity in achieving larger and more important goals, he will inevitably tend to become mechanical and static. In no sense can the thesis be considered as restricting independence or as thwarting initiative. It simply requires the intelligent setting of a series of objectives in the seeking of which the teacher has every possible opportunity to use any materials and any methods that seem to him necessary or wise.

#### V. Finding Purposes.—

*In philosophy.* Teachers accustomed to exercising their talents chiefly to impart knowledge and skills required by textbooks or syllabi prepared by others are not infrequently embarrassed when they are challenged to accept and apply the thesis under discussion. They shrink from accepting responsibility for acting with independent professional intelligence and ask where they can find the purposes that they should seek. This attitude manifests professional immaturity and improbability of growth. A supervisor can help teachers best in the long run by such consideration as has been repeatedly emphasized of the meaning of education and its responsibility in making happy and effective citizens in a democracy. Without a philosophy no teacher can achieve true and continuing self-directed growth.

*In books on special subjects.* A more immediate help the supervisor can give by reference to the numerous books that have been written on the teaching of the special subjects. These books do not always agree on the objectives of the subject treated—fortunately, it may be said, for disagreement and the presentation of the same objectives in different language force on teachers consideration and restatement after they have convinced themselves of relative values. It is wise for teachers of the same subject to work in groups in finding or making statements of the most important objectives that they should seek, leaving each one free to vary within reasonable limits as to the relative emphasis that each goal should have. The supervisor can be of great help to the groups by keeping their attention focused on the general objectives of education and on the special functions of the secondary school, concerning which presumably the faculty have already come to agreement. The special func-



tions of each subject as formulated by the department teachers may well be presented to the entire faculty for their consideration so that there may result a better understanding of what is being attempted throughout the school and a greater degree of correlation and unity of effort.

*The supervisor's responsibility.* When there has resulted an approved statement of the special objectives of each subject, the supervisor has a continuing responsibility to lead the teachers into the fixed habit of using them as the goals toward which all of their lesson plans are directed. A consistent attempt to aim every plan for a recitation unit at a purpose that is worthy, definite, and specific cannot but result in teaching that is not only more intelligent and consequently more effective, but that is also more conducive to professional growth in independence and self-confidence. It will force teachers to evaluate all material in textbooks and syllabi in terms of these purposes and also to the invention of new materials and methods as they are needed. The habitual selection for each recitation unit of a worthy, definite, and specific purpose which is clearly seen as contributing to a hierarchy of purposes approved by an accepted philosophy of education is the fundamental and essential characteristic of a professionally effective teacher.

#### **VI. Means for Leading Teachers to Seek Worthy Purposes.—**

1. By teachers meetings, suggested readings, and personal conferences the supervisor should convince the teachers of the soundness of the thesis for insuring effective and economical instruction and also for insuring growth in professional competence and in self-confidence. Each of the qualifying adjectives in the thesis will need to be discussed, one at a time, until the meaning is thoroughly understood. It is wise to get each teacher to commit himself in a faculty meeting to approval of the principle, for such public commitment carries a strong implication of obligation to seek to apply the thesis in daily practice.

2. In meetings of the whole faculty and of department groups mimeographed or summarized reports of typical recitation units should be considered to ascertain whether or not each one has a purpose that is worthy, definite, and specific. Teachers are not as a rule keenly aware of the extent to which the thesis is violated in daily practice. Having approved the thesis



they are convinced by the evidence of a lack of its influence on practice and thus stimulated to improve their own planning.

3. The supervisor should make special effort to clarify the minds of the teachers as to the difference between ends and means. He must achieve the difficult task of showing that knowledge and skills have no significant values except in terms of the objectives to which they lead, and the still more difficult one of helping teachers toward the habit of seeing the value of each objective in terms of another one to which it contributes until an ultimate goal of education is approximated.

4. After general discussion of the thesis in a faculty meeting the supervisor may profitably formulate plans with department heads or with unusually promising and influential teachers for getting a constantly increasing degree of its application in practice.

5. The thesis is so fundamentally important that the supervisor may institute a "drive" to increase the probability that all teachers will simultaneously attempt its application in their own work. Experience with "drives" in other fields has manifested that there is a distinct advantage for all of a group to be concerned with the same objective at the same time.

6. The work begun by the faculty meetings and by the drives will need to be extended in departmental or other group meetings.

7. The supervisor may challenge the teachers of a single subject to formulate in writing for recitation units a number of purposes that are worthy, definite, and specific, to justify them by previously approved concepts of education, and to relate them to each other so that they are mutually contributory. Attempting to meet this challenge is likely to lead to a better understanding of the larger units of teaching and of the involved relative values. It should also illustrate how these purposes may be made specific in several different circumstances.

8. After teachers of each subject have formulated a statement of the purposes that they consider of most importance, they should present them to the entire faculty that there may result a better understanding of what each group is attempting. The faculty may make illuminating criticism in terms of previously approved concepts of education and it may discover means of eliminating duplications of effort and of correlating



the work of two or more groups or individuals for more economical and more assured results.

9. Extending the preceding suggestion, the supervisor may ask to have outlined lesson plans that look directly toward the achievement of the stated purposes. The best of these plans can profitably be presented to departmental or other groups for constructive criticism and also as stimuli of other teachers to do as well.

10. In curriculum reconstruction teachers should propose units of learning with the purposes clearly indicated and justified by a statement of the expected contribution to the larger objectives of education and to the special functions of the school.

11. To secure the application of the thesis and to insure a rational evaluation of what is proposed by others for teaching, the supervisor should have materials in textbooks and syllabi studied by the teachers to find what purposes the authors had in mind, to what purposes the materials can be made to contribute, and the values that are likely to accrue from their use. Inasmuch as textbooks and syllabi probably will continue to furnish the major part of what most teachers use in their instruction, this means is obviously of great importance. It should not preclude the introduction of new materials; on the contrary, it should indicate the necessity of supplementing textbooks in order to achieve the objectives that have been approved. When even ready-made materials are taught purposefully day by day, the education of pupils cannot fail to be improved.

12. Perhaps in some instances the supervisor would do well to precede the step just discussed by challenging the teachers to create teaching units for the achievement of such unusual purposes as "to choose wisely a type of insurance policy," "to decide which is better, renting or buying a home on the installment plan," or "to select a reproduction of a painting for hanging on the wall of a sitting room." Some teachers feel greater freedom in applying the thesis to original teaching materials than in adapting that which is prepared by others, especially when it has in their minds the sanction of assumed "authority." The supervisor will probably have a more certain success by challenging first a small group of teachers to prepare novel teaching units with purposes that are worthy, definite,



and specific, and later, when the teachers have gained a degree of self-confidence, to extend the challenge to individuals.

13. After the thesis is thoroughly understood and approved and the teachers have begun to attempt the application, the supervisor should observe many classes with almost the sole purpose of discovering the degree of success that the teachers have in using purposes that are worthy, definite, and specific. In brief or extended conferences he should state what he thought the purpose in each recitation unit was, ask the teacher to justify it by the criteria in the thesis, give suggestions as to how it might have been made better, commend what was done, and encourage to further success. Until the teachers are fairly launched on the habit of teaching purposefully the supervisor may well neglect in his discussions almost everything pertaining to detailed techniques. Success in applying the thesis will make evident to the teachers themselves the need of better techniques for the best results.

14. Recognition of intelligent effort to apply the thesis and praise for any degree of success are highly effective means of encouraging teachers to further effort. Recognition and praise should be given not only privately but also publicly—in faculty meetings and in the bulletins, printed or mimeographed, that the supervisor periodically circulates to the staff. It is usually wise to give credit before parent-teacher associations and in the public press only to the staff as a whole.

15. The supervisor should encourage teachers to make written plans for their teaching units, indicating in them the purposes to be sought. These plans may properly be discussed from time to time in conferences with special attention to the stated purposes.

16. The supervisor should also encourage the teachers to review the lessons that they have recently taught and the plans that they have made for the immediate future in terms of the requirements of the thesis. He should lead them to see that subject-matter, the organization, and the methods used are significant only as they contribute to the achievement of the stated purpose. An established habit in this matter leads to self-confidence and independent growth.

17. A means usually neglected in secondary schools but effectively used in the elementary grades is the demonstration



lesson. There is no good reason why it should not be used with teachers on any administrative level. Usually it is wise for the supervisor to plan with the demonstrating teacher just what will be attempted and for the teacher to state, either in writing or orally before the pupils enter the room, to the observing teachers the general plan to be followed to achieve a satisfactory purpose. After the demonstration there should, of course, be a tactful discussion of the lesson with opportunity for everyone to ask questions and to make constructive suggestions. The teacher selected for the demonstration should be made to feel that he has received a distinct honor.

18. Teachers who are having difficulty in applying the thesis to their own work should be given the opportunity of visiting the classes in which purposes of distinct worth, of appropriate size, and of suitable adaptation to conditions prevailing at the time are consistently used. The supervisor will not only select the classes to be visited, but he will also prepare the visitors by indicating what they are especially to observe. In the beginning he may well observe at the same time so that there will be a community of knowledge at the time of the ensuing conference. In this conference he will emphasize the successes of the observed teacher and be careful to keep the discussion away from shortcomings, especially those that are not detrimental to purposeful teaching. Nothing so surely prevents the success of directed visiting on the part of the teacher observed as the fear, justified by experience, that his work will be judged by its weaknesses, and, on the part of observers, as a concentration of attention on defects and weaknesses.

19. When the personal relations are satisfactory the supervisor may arrange for a teacher who is successful in using such purposes as are required by the thesis to give individual and private help to another who finds the challenge difficult to meet. Ordinarily, of course, the two teachers will be in the same department, but that is not always necessary. Sometimes a teacher, especially if experienced, may be helped most effectively by another who is giving instruction in a different field and thus can bring to the problem a new or unprejudicial point of view. The important factor is that the teacher to be helped is willing to learn from the colleague selected.

20. If tests to the pupils are formulated with the intent to



measure the extent to which the stated purposes are achieved, there will be a powerful pressure to teach purposefully. Therefore the supervisor should work with both individual teachers and with groups to insure that both the informal and the formal examinations are so made that they will concern the degree to which the pupils have achieved the purposes for which the instruction was given and that they are not confined to the acquirement of isolated factual information. Prepared tests may well be discussed by departmental groups or even by the entire faculty to see to what extent they concern the objectives that justified the teaching. Occasional examinations prepared by the department group or even by the supervisor himself for the purpose of measuring the pupils' success in attaining the goals stated by the teachers in their lesson plans are a potent supervisory device. Repeated attention to the types of tests used by teachers is a constant pressure for the consistent application of the thesis.

21. The supervisor should exemplify the successful use of the thesis in every teachers meeting that he conducts. For each unit of such meetings he should have a purpose that is worthy, definite, and specific, and, moreover, should make it obvious to the teachers. When they recognize its desirability and effectiveness with them, they inevitably will be more receptive to help in improving their own teaching in this respect.

### EXERCISES

1. Recall in detail several recitation units that you have observed in high school classes or, better still, consider several lessons stenographically reported, and decide what was the purpose of each one. To what extent is it justifiable by criteria that you state? Is it sufficiently definite to be achieved in the allotted time? What efforts were there to make it adapted to the group of pupils to be taught and to their prevailing interests?

2. In so far as the recitation units that you considered are typical, what do you conclude as to the need for emphasis on this thesis in supervision?

3. Set up a justifiable purpose for each of the recitation units that you considered. What modifications in the teaching would it necessitate?

4. Justify each of the purposes that you propose in terms of a larger purpose, which in turn you similarly justify until you reach an ulti-



mate educational objective. Is it reasonable to expect secondary school teachers to be able to make such a schematic hierarchy?

5. Consider units of educational experience proposed in textbooks and in published courses of study and see to what extent the authors had in mind purposes that are obviously worthy. What would a teacher need to do to make each of the units worthy, definite, and specific for a given class?

6. To what extent has the substance of this thesis been in the minds of those who have made recently reconstructed courses of study? What do they leave for the supervisor to do in order to lead teachers to the application of the thesis in the use of the proposed material?

7. Prepare a novel teaching unit with a dominating purpose of your own choosing and indicate the subordinate purposes most necessary for success. Be prepared to justify each one and also the entire unit.

8. Adapt the plan of the preceding project specifically to the interests, capacities, abilities, and environments of several designated groups of pupils. Be prepared to tell why you made each modification and why it promises success with each group.

9. What are the effects of the traditional emphasis on isolated facts, principles, and skills? How can the supervisor preserve respect for knowledge and at the same time insure that it has more likelihood of being effectively used?

10. What are the outstanding influences of standardized tests on the application of the proposed thesis? What do their influences indicate as a necessary obligation of a supervisor?

### BIBLIOGRAPHY

The following are selected as illustrative of the numerous sources where statements of the special objectives of the several subjects of study can be found.

"Reports of Sub-Committees": on English, French, Latin, General Introductory or Elementary Science, Biology, Physics, Chemistry, Home Economics, and Physical Education. *North Central Association Quarterly*, 1:445-559, March, 1927.

C. S. Pendleton, *The Social Objectives of School English*, published by the author, Nashville, Tenn., 1924.

Carter V. Good, "English Objectives and Constants in Secondary Schools," *Peabody Journal of Education*, 5:230-235, January, 1928.

C. C. Fries, J. H. Hanford, and H. R. Steeves, *The Teaching of Literature*, pp. 42-61. Silver, Burdett and Co., 1926.

Lou L. LaBrant, *Teaching of Literature in the Secondary School*, pp. 21-37. Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1931.



- Russell Sharp, *Teaching English in High Schools*, pp. 22-27. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924.
- Howard F. Seely, *On Teaching English*, pp. 7-17, 164-174, 226-232. American Book Co., 1933.
- Charles S. Thomas, *The Teaching of English in the Secondary School*, pp. 1-47. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927.
- Josiah B. Game, *Teaching High School Latin*, pp. 1-9. University of Chicago Press, 1929.
- Mason D. Gray, *Teaching of Latin*, pp. 26-37. D. Appleton Co., 1929.
- E. B. Clogston, "A Case in Setting Up Aims for the Social Studies," *Historical Outlook*, 20:115-116, March, 1929.
- The Social Studies Curriculum*, pp. 57-59. Fourteenth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1936. Also in "Improving Social Studies Instruction," pp. 193-198. *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, Vol. XV, No. 5, November, 1937.
- Henry Johnson, *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, pp. 55-83. The Macmillan Company, 1915.
- Olive C. Fish, "The Aims and Content of Junior High School Geography," *The Journal of Geography*, 26:313-321, November, 1927.
- National Council Committee on High School Geography, "Geography in the Junior High School," *Journal of Geography*, 26:207-220, September, 1927.
- J. Russell Smith, "How Geography Contributes to the General Ends in Education," *The Teaching of Geography*, pp. 29-39, Thirty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, 1933. See also pp. 251-254, 260, 263-264, 268-271, 289-290, 297-298, 300.
- C. C. Peters, *The Objectives of Education for Worthy Home Membership*, Second Yearbook, pp. 136-147, National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology, 1929.
- Marcia E. Turner and Mabel M. Hall, "Objectives for High-School Courses in Home Relationships," *Journal of Home Economics*, 23:238-242, March, 1931. See also Paul Popenoe, Lucy Adams, and Laura B. Hadley, "Objectives in Teaching Family Relationships," *Journal of Home Economics*, 24:121-125, February, 1925.
- "Report of Conference as to How Home Economics Is Carried On in Various Cities," pp. 361-363, *The Junior High School Curriculum*, Fifth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence, 1927.
- Elliott R. Downing, *Teaching Science in the Schools*, pp. 64-85. University of Chicago Press, 1925.
- Philipine Crecelius, "A Report on Objectives of General Science Teaching," *School Science and Mathematics*, 23:313-319, April, 1923.



- Edward E. Cureton, "Junior High School Science," *School Review*, 35:767-775, December, 1927.
- J. O. Frank, *How to Teach General Science*, pp. 37-43. P. Blakiston's Sons and Co., 1926.
- Ralph Knupp Watkins, "The Technique and Value of Project Teaching in General Science," *General Science Quarterly*, 7:249-256, May, 1923.
- Ralph Knupp Watkins, *Instruction in Physical Science in the Secondary Schools*, Physics, pp. 246-252; Chemistry, pp. 256-261; "A Program for Teaching Science," Part I, of the Thirty-First Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, 1932.
- S. R. Powers, "Objectives of High School Chemistry," *School Science and Mathematics*, 25:832-833, November, 1925.
- Franklin Bobbitt, "Discovering the Objectives of Health Education," *Elementary School Journal*, 25:755-761, June, 1925.
- "Report of Sub-Committee on Junior High-School Mathematics," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 2:396-419, March, 1928.
- David Eugene Smith and William David Reeve, *Objectives in Teaching Junior-High-School Mathematics*, Second Yearbook, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1927, pp. 173-227.
- Sylvan A. Yager, "Objectives of the General Shop," *Industrial Education Magazine*, 34:152, March, 1933.
- E. A. Lee, *Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education*. McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1928.
- Frederick G. Nichols, *Commercial Education in the High School*, pp. 58-68, 219-241. D. Appleton-Century Co., 1933.
- C. V. Good, "The Objectives and Status of Art Education in Secondary Schools," *Journal of Educational Method*, 7:209-213, February, 1928.
- "Report of Sub-Committee on Art Education," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 2:479-503, March, 1928.



## CHAPTER XII

---

### PURPOSES FOR PUPILS

---

**I. Introduction.**—In the Colonial Latin Grammar School it was the general practice to present to pupils assignments of subject-matter to be memorized and regurgitated at the next recitation period. Many of these assigned units-to-be-learned could have had no real meaning to the pupils, some of whom had not even learned to read English, for the commonly used introductory textbook, *Cheever's Accidence*, consisted of the barest dry summary of the form of Latin grammar without illustrative sentences or reading material. But pedagogues in those days thought that such mechanical drudgery improved the memory and that doing what was difficult, disagreeable, and otherwise useless strengthened the character and sweetened the disposition. The main purpose of the school, it was declared, was to prepare leaders for church and state. As one considers the barren pabulum of the curriculum it is impossible to see any material contribution that it possibly could make to the declared objective. It is a question whether we marvel more at the persistence of pupils that enabled them to memorize the mass of meaningless material or at the stupidity of the schoolmasters who blindly followed an outworn tradition.

The hardy and persistent Colonial youth survived, at the expense, it may safely be surmised, of such development of abilities as the civilization of the time needed. The real education that they got was outside the school. The natural gifts that enabled some boys to master difficult and abstract set tasks also enabled them later to surpass their fellows in other mental tasks. That to our ancestors seemed a proof that their educational program was successful. No one was disturbed by what should have been obvious, that these boys were not prepared for life in their own civilization, that they never used in the service of church or of state what they had learned, and that never again would they attempt to "learn" as they had



been forced to do in school. Such "education" seems to us now a brutal cramming of relatively useless learning into docile youth and a ruthless selection of the type that could succeed anyway with consequent neglect of all others.

Much water has run under the bridges since the Latin Grammar School, but it has not entirely washed away the old notions of what education should be. There still are teachers who believe that pupils should unquestioningly attempt to learn what is set before them, whether or not they understand its possible contribution to the effectiveness or happiness of their lives. Perhaps, they argue, use will be found for it later. Sometimes they themselves do not recognize or are not concerned with the values of what they teach; they accept what others have presented in textbooks and syllabi and use such skill as they have to teach it in units isolated from use. All this results in more or less temporary learning, much of which has evaporated when demands for it come, and it is difficult to see how it contributes to those qualities of initiative, invention, and independence in self-direction which are generally recognized as desirable in the educated adult. This kind of teaching is easy, unintelligent, ineffective for the pupils, and preventive of professional growth by the teachers.

**II. The New Theory of Education and Purposeful Learning.**--Despite the lingering effects of the old tradition there has developed a new theory of education which receives oral approval by almost every teacher. It deprecates the teaching of anything for its transfer values alone, recognizing, first, that such transfer as is possible is most likely to occur when learning is concerned with facts and principles in such practical situations as probably will recur; and second, that while attempting to teach that which may transfer it is economical to teach useful applications at the same time. It has no faith in "discipline" as an end itself, having found that even educational leaders do not agree on its definition or on the kinds of application or subjects that will give it. Whatever is desirable in the way of discipline can best result as a by-product of obviously useful learning. It disapproves effort without intelligent direction to a clearly seen and desired objective, recognizing that it is often exerted by pupils to avoid useful work.

The new theory of education believes that it should teach



pupils to do better the desirable things that they will do anyway and to reveal to them higher activities, at the same time making them desired and maximally possible. Among the many implications of this principle is one that emphasizes the necessity of learners finding problems to solve, proposing means for solution, evaluating, and applying them until the best are found and the original need is satisfied. They need to be taught to do all of these things and they need further to be led to the appreciation of other problems and opportunities of growth which they will accept as they are convinced that they have justifying values. In other words, the new theory believes that youth should be made intelligent about their own education, that they should actively participate in formulating or at least in understanding and approving its objectives, and that in school they should be so taught that they are able progressively to become more able and more desirous of carrying on along the same lines, of becoming more independently self-directive when the compulsions of school have ceased.

It is evident that the value and importance of everything in life is determined by the objective which one wishes at the time to reach. Thorndike has pointed out that "most of the signs, stores, vehicles, and people" observed when walking to your office "are indifferent stimuli which are often not even perceived because you do not identify them with your purpose." But let one have a problem of finding a store and at once the signs take on a significance because they will help him to the desired satisfaction. All real thinking and learning must therefore be in terms of recognized and desired objectives.

John Dewey has emphasized this fact over and over again in his *How We Think*, a book that every supervisor and teacher should know thoroughly. In it he says,<sup>1</sup>

*Demand for the solution of a perplexity is the steadying and guiding factor in the entire process of reflection. Where there is no question of a problem to be solved or a difficulty to be surmounted, the course of suggestions flows on at random; . . . But a question to be answered, an ambiguity to be resolved, sets up an end and holds the current of ideas to a definite channel. Every suggested channel is tested by its reference to this regulating end, by its pertinence to the problem in hand. This need of straightening out a perplexity*

<sup>1</sup> D. C. Heath and Co., 2d edition, 1933, pp. 14-15.



also controls the kind of inquiry undertaken. A traveler whose end is the most beautiful path will look for other signs and will test suggestions on another basis than if he wishes to discover the way to a given city. *The nature of the problem fixes the end of thought, and the end controls the process of thinking.*

With a purpose to be attained one will not only seek facts that are significant and ignore those that are not, but he will persist in the seeking, the evaluation, the interpretation, and the application until he attains his goal. Intelligent persistence is quite different from docile drudgery at tasks set by others. With a purpose of his own one is not guessing to satisfy another; he is thinking to satisfy himself. He is not a tool blindly used for an unknown or undesired achievement, but a human being learning to be self-directive and independent.

The facts required to be learned in school or the observations directed in laboratories may have the highest value in the mind of a teacher who knows to what they will ultimately contribute, but they are meaningless to a pupil unless he too knows the purpose to the achievement of which they will contribute. And the docility of a pupil in performing tasks the values of which he does not appreciate or does not want leads to anything but the promise of future intelligent self-direction. In almost every secondary school there are daily assignments of facts to be memorized and tasks to be done as if they were complete and meaningful in themselves instead of being valuable only as they contribute to a goal that is understood and desired by the pupils. They may successfully memorize Gresham's Law or the meaning of cosines and tangents or they may make fairly accurate sketches of amoebae and paramecia seen through a microscope, but the exercises are meaningless and mechanical unless the pupils appreciate and desire the objectives which learning will help them to reach.

There is much disagreement among teachers as to the wisdom of beginning a unit of study with rules, definitions, classifications, or general principles. Some see in them a means of giving significance to ensuing work on details; others consider that they are meaningless until the pupils are acquainted with the facts or phenomena out of which they grow. The essential point is that the pupils shall understand



and desire the goals they help to attain. On this matter Dewey writes:<sup>1</sup>

The mistake is, logically, due to the attempt to introduce deductive considerations without first making acquaintance with the particular facts that create a need for definition and generalization. Unfortunately, the reformer sometimes carries his objective too far or, rather, locates it in the wrong place. He is led into a tirade against *all* definition, all systematization, all use of general principles, instead of confining himself to pointing out their futility and their deadness when not properly motivated by familiarity with concrete experiences. Moreover, a flat statement of a general principle may properly come at the beginning, provided it is used to challenge attention and not to close inquiry.

*Incentives.* Everything that one does is the result of pressure of some kind. A pupil may study because of external pressure or stimulus. He may desire to do what he thinks is his duty, to please his teacher or parents, to do what his comrades are doing, to win a reward, or to escape punishment. But all these stimuli are extrinsic, having no inherent connection with the activity itself. When the influence of teacher or parents or comrades or the reward or threatened punishment is absent, the activity inevitably ceases. That is the reason why so many youth who have successfully "passed" subjects in the secondary school fail to continue them in later study or to use them in life. The reason for the study goes and the activity ceases.

Fortunately even incentives may have good results. A child driven by threats of punishment to taste an unfamiliar food may find it so palatable that he later seeks it voluntarily. He may take bitter medicine only to please a parent, but it will be effective notwithstanding the cause of action. If a teacher is certain that an educative experience is necessary or probably contributory to good, he is justified in "taking the pupil by the hand kindly, by the arm firmly, by the neck roughly, or by the nose insultingly" to insure that he has it. The results may justify the means. But this is an uneconomical, ordinarily an ineffective, and usually an unnecessary procedure. Whatever good may come from it is far more likely to be temporary than permanent, and it not infrequently sets up such attitudes of hostility that the pupil for varying lengths of time and in vary-

<sup>1</sup> *How We Think*, 2d edition, pp. 186-187.



ing degrees is antagonistic to the activity and to those who forced it. The use of extrinsic incentives probably does more to hinder than to promote secondary education.

*Motives.* There is another kind of pressure, however, that is more effective and more continuous in its effects. This is motivation, which is intrinsic with an activity, pertaining to its very nature. The essence of motivation is the desire for something felt by the one who is to act. True motivation cannot exist unless the learner not only knows the purpose of the experience that is offered him, but also approves it as desirable and accepts it as his own. Most cogent is the motivation that is active from a consciousness of a need. The learner may report the need which has arisen from his own experience, or he may be made conscious by the teacher of one that he has without being aware of it, or he may be inducted into such experiences that the desired need automatically emerges. A teacher's prime responsibility, if he wishes to cause real effort and true learning, is to use as motivation the needs that pupils feel or to reveal to them needs that they recognize and are willing to strive to satisfy. If a teacher makes his pupils aware of values to themselves in a proposed experience or of the control that they will have of the values by performing some task, it will be undertaken cheerfully and performed intelligently. If use is made of the subsequent learning to effect desired satisfactions, the next motivation will be more easily achieved.

Despite the fact that all voluntary learning outside school results from true motivation and the general agreement that education is to prepare people to do better the desirable things that they will do anyway, there are those who deprecate this as "soft pedagogy." Although they usually reserve for themselves the privilege of directing their own learning to the satisfaction of needs that they appreciate, they inconsistently argue that youth in school should be taught (which means temporarily forced) to perform tasks unquestioningly without understanding their significance. Such people are *laudatores temporis acti*; they find it hard to realize that any procedure different from that to which they were accustomed in childhood can be good. But they will have to yield to the logic of intelligent and effective progress.



When the flush of a new-born sun fell first on Eden's green and gold,  
Our father Adam sat under the Tree and scratched with a stick  
in the mould;  
And the first rude sketch that the world had seen was joy to his  
mighty heart,  
Till the Devil whispered behind the leaves, "It's pretty, but is it  
Art?"<sup>1</sup>

*Concomitant learnings.* One phenomenon that the opponents of the new education usually fail to appreciate is that from every experience there are concomitant learnings beyond and frequently more important than those the teacher intended. Pupils may be taught to remember the French verbs that do not need *pas* in making a negative statement or to follow accurately instructions for solving in physics problems on the effectiveness of the three types of levers, but at the same time they are learning good or bad habits of work and they are acquiring highly effective attitudes, which may be mischievous in their effects, toward the subject, the teacher, the school, education, and even life itself. Far too many recitations dull curiosity, generate mind-wandering, and cause learning to be a task instead of a delight. Desirable concomitant learnings should be as consistently sought as the learning of facts, principles, and skills. They are likely to result in proportion as the learner is working intelligently for the satisfaction of some need of which he is conscious as important for his own effectiveness and happiness.

*Habit formation.* The new education lays as much emphasis on the importance of habit formation as did the old. But it insists on this important difference: habits are most effectively formed when the learner is conscious that he is acquiring a way of acting that will result in definite satisfactions to himself. Always he sees the end desired and he intelligently selects and acquires what he needs to achieve that end. Everyone knows that mechanical practice does not make perfect, and that even such progress as results is not economically achieved. The learner must realize what practice is necessary for attaining a desired skill for a desired objective and he must be constantly conscious of the advancement toward the goal that the practice accomplishes. From interest come attention and in-

<sup>1</sup> Rudyard Kipling, "The Conundrum of the Workshops."



telligent effort. Unless the learner is aware of the goal toward which practice is supposed to advance him, he cannot recognize the true "satisfactions and annoyances" that psychology teaches are essential in habit formation.

Psychology also emphasizes the importance of "readiness" for effective learning. "*Stultitia est venatum ducere invitos canes*," ("It is foolish to take to hunt dogs that don't want to go") wrote Plautus long ago. And it is equally true today that if we want a youth to learn effectively we must first make him want to learn. We must activate him by intrinsic motives, not attempt to stimulate him by external incentives that are temporary in effect and distracting from true learning. "The best, indeed the only, preparation needed,"<sup>1</sup> "is arousal to a perception of something that needs explanation, something unexpected, puzzling, peculiar. When the feeling of a genuine perplexity lays hold of any mind (no matter how the feeling arises) that mind is alert and enquiring, because stimulated from within." The words in parentheses abundantly justify a teacher in departing from the problems of which youth are conscious, problems frequently trivial in importance and temporary in nature, and in revealing those of convincingly greater and more permanent value.

The strength of the contention that motivated work is most effective does not depend wholly on the abstract logic of the argument or on introspection to find what is most effective in our own learning. Carefully planned and controlled experiments have abundantly proved that motives are highly effective in producing the most rapid, the most economical, and the most permanent learning.

### BIBLIOGRAPHY ON MOTIVATION

- William F. Book and Lee Norvell, "The Will to Learn: an Experimental Study of Incentives in Learning," *Pedagogical Seminary*, 29:305-362, December, 1922.
- A. B. Crawford, *Incentives to Study*. Yale University Press, 1929.
- Charles M. Diserens and James Vaughan, "The Experimental Psychology of Motivation," *Psychological Bulletin*, 28:15-65, January, 1931. Bibliography of 233 items.
- S. C. Garrison and K. C. Garrison, *Fundamentals of Psychology in Secondary Education*, pp. 132-133. The Prentice-Hall Co., 1936.

<sup>1</sup> *How We Think*, 2d. edition, p. 268.



- F. B. Knight and H. H. Remmers, "Fluctuations in Mental Production When Motivation Is the Main Variable," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 7:209-223, September, 1923.
- L. T. Troland, *The Fundamentals of Human Motivation*. Van Nostrand Co., 1928.
- Austin H. Turney, "Intelligence, Motivation, and Achievement," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 22:426-434, September, 1931.
- P. T. Young, *The Motivation of Human and Animal Behavior*. Edwards Brothers, 1933.

**III. A Thesis Proposed.**—This introduction leads to a practical thesis that a supervisor should use for directing teachers to more highly motivated and intelligent work by pupils.

*For every recitation unit pupils should propose a purpose, or else comprehend, approve, and adopt as their own the purpose proposed by the teacher.*

The meaning of "recitation unit" is the same as defined in the preceding chapter. It should be remembered that it may be shorter than the recitation period or that it may extend over several days. There should be in the pupils' minds a hierarchy of purposes, one or more for the entire project undertaken, a whole course or any major part of it, and at least one for each contributory subdivision. Thus pupils should understand and approve the purposes of studying Problems of Democracy, and they should similarly understand and approve the purposes of each major problem, such as "How can a citizen learn to vote intelligently?" "What should determine the relations of capital and labor?" and "What taxes are most equitable?" Study of these problems will be broken into units each having such purposes as "To understand the values of preferential voting," "To learn the advantages and disadvantages of collective bargaining," or "To compute one's income tax."

*In informal education.* In informal education it is entirely possible and usually wise for a teacher to use any problem or interest that seems to the learner important at the time. On a camping trip a father uses the questions that his children raise about faults in a rocky cliff, the food or nesting of the bass, the stars in the sky, or the flowers in the fields to give them such information as he thinks good for them and to initiate habits of accurate observation, of setting up and proving hypothesis,



and of drawing sound conclusions. The teacher in David Starr Jordan's fascinating "Story of a Stone" probably taught the children more that was good when he gave time to the "petrified honeycomb" that had aroused their curiosity than if he had followed the normal program of the curriculum. The biology teacher who refused to answer the pupils' excited questions about a young golden-shafted woodpecker that had flown into the room because "we don't get to birds for two weeks yet" missed an opportunity which he could probably not recapture when the topic came normally in the course of study.

*In formal education.* Even in formal education a teacher will often be wise to scrap the assigned lesson and satisfy a need or develop a keen interest that is prominent at the time in the pupils' minds. Thus a geometry teacher deferred discussion of Proposition IX in Book I to explain to the pupils who were at the same time taking woodwork how to use a protractor in order to cut moulding with any given angle. Thus a music teacher altered his plan in order to study with the class a sonata that would be played by a visiting pianist before the school. Thus a teacher of geography turned aside from studying with the pupils the exports of Japan in order to capitalize curiosity about the utilization of wind currents aroused by a glider that had grounded on the school playing field. Thus a teacher of hygiene temporarily abandoned the lesson on inoculation in order to teach the boys who were going on a camping trip the poisonous plants that they wanted to know how to identify and avoid. Each of these teachers recognized the "readiness" that is essential to economical learning, and he seized the opportunity for effective teaching even at the inconvenience of changing the plan he had previously made for the course.

But in formal education there is a limit to the frequency and extent to which a teacher can afford to depart from a course of study which is presumably organized in the way in which it can be most economically and effectively taught. (Unfortunately this presumption is not always sound. The less sound it is, the more justification for any departure that promises good results.) It is futile for a teacher to encourage a project that a boy proposes to build an elaborately carved cabinet of oak when he has not yet learned to use skillfully a saw and a plane. In attempting the project the boy may learn much about the



use of tools, but he can learn more economically if his interest can be directed to a simpler project that uses more easily worked stock. A carefully prepared course of study which is graded from the easily accomplished to the increasingly difficult, which insures vocabulary and understood formulae before they are needed, and which leads to an understanding and appreciation of knowledge organized for effective use has values that cannot permit it to be disrupted for light reasons. But seldom is it so sacred and inviolable that it cannot be reorganized or temporarily laid aside when pupils have a real need that can be satisfied or a lively interest that can be developed and directed by so doing.

There are other objections to abandoning a well-prepared program of education in order to utilize pupils' immediate needs and interests. One is that they may not be sufficiently important to warrant consideration in class. A teacher should be very certain of his judgment, however, when making such a decision, for the essential is that what is used in one's education shall seem to him of paramount importance. When there is a reasonable doubt of relative values, the pupils' judgment should be allowed to prevail, even at the inconvenience of the teacher. Another objection is that the need or interest of one pupil may not be the need or interest of the others in the class. In that case it may be satisfied or stimulated by individual work. But it should not be forgotten that pupils are likely to be influenced largely by the same factors and the need or interest of one is often already shared by most of the others or can easily be shown to be of common importance. The teacher should be on his guard against a prejudiced decision unfavorable to a proposal for study initiated by a pupil. Such a proposal has in it so many possibilities for true learning that it should be rejected only for thoroughly convincing reasons.

Some teachers in their enthusiasm for the philosophy that emphasizes the importance of using the learner's recognized needs and interests have gone to an indefensible extreme, maintaining that no learning experiences shall be imposed or even proposed by teachers. Such an extreme position would result in an unfortunate limitation. Thorndike has well said that one function of education is to create new needs. Recognizing the complacency of many Filipinos whose every known



need is so easily satisfied that they have no stimulus for improving their condition, Paul Monroe once said that the best thing that could be given them would be a Sears, Roebuck catalog for every hut. The acceptance of a need suggested by others is as important as the recognition of a need that already exists.

Commenting on the stupidity of leaving children to react as they will to their environment in which they find themselves, John Dewey wrote:

It attempts the impossible . . . ; and it misconceives the conditions of independent thinking. There are a multitude of ways of reacting to surrounding conditions, and without some guidance from experience these reactions are almost sure to be casual, sporadic, and ultimately fatiguing, accompanied by nervous strain. Since the teacher has presumably a greater background of experience, there is the same presumption of the right of the teacher to make suggestions as to what to do, as there is on the part of the head carpenter to suggest to apprentices something of what they are to do. . . .

Moreover, when the child proposes or suggests what to do, some consequence to be attained, whence is the suggestion supposed to spring from? There is no spontaneous germination in the mental life. If he does not get the suggestion from the teacher, he gets it from somebody or something in the home or street or from what some more vigorous fellow pupil is doing. Hence the chances are great of its being a passing and superficial suggestion, without much depth and range—in other words, not specifically conducive to the development of freedom.<sup>1</sup>

*Pupil purposes not sufficient.* It is clear that although the perplexes, challenges to curiosity, interests, and needs recognized and proposed by learners are powerfully motivating to thought and true learning, they are not in themselves sufficient. An important function of the teacher is not only to help pupils recognize their own needs, evaluate them, and plan for their satisfactions, but also to reveal other and higher needs and to make them desired. “When the feeling of genuine perplexity” or the feeling of a genuine need “lays hold on any mind (no matter how the feeling arises)” that mind becomes motivated to true learning. This enforces the second part of the thesis,

<sup>1</sup> Twenty-Sixth Yearbook, pp. 173–174, National Society for Teachers of Education.



that the teacher has an obligation to make pupils understand, approve, and accept as their own the purposes that he proposes.

*Prestidigitation.* Some teachers who accept the extreme doctrine that education should be confined altogether to the problems proposed by pupils often deceive their charges and sometimes themselves by beginning with what is proposed and cleverly leading the attention on to something that they themselves think worthy of study. By a kind of verbal prestidigitation these teachers lead the pupils' attention from the proposed topic to another somewhat related and then on by similar steps to a topic that would never have been thought of by the pupils. It is not hard to do. Tomato soup suggests tin cans; tin cans suggest billy goats; billy goats suggest initiation; initiations suggest secret orders, one of which is Masonry, which is reputed to have been founded by King Solomon; he also built the great temple; and that suggests religion, in the teacher's mind a highly desirable subject for study. Many a class has been led from interest in card playing to the mathematical laws of probability, from a desire for a job to consideration of the correct form of letter writing, from curiosity about liquor to studying the chemical esters—almost without knowing that interest has been redirected. Such subtle skill in leading from a topic of temporary interest but promising of little value to another unthought of but highly fruitful for study is not to be deprecated *if* it succeeds in taking the pupils along and convinces them that the teacher's proposal is worthy of their best effort.

*The weakness in textbook use.* The study-outlines in our textbooks and syllabi are not in themselves so bad as many critics have asserted. They are what a developing civilization has found to be good for its citizens to know. They are deficient in that they tend to retain some material long after its value has decreased, sometimes to a point that it has almost no value at all, and in that they are slow to incorporate other material which the changes in life have made important. But the greatest weakness is that teachers have become accustomed to present to pupils material the values of which the teachers themselves do not clearly recognize and that they do not make a consistent attempt so to reveal to the pupils the defensible values recognized in such way that they are convincing and stimulat-



ing to effort at acquisition. There would be a wholesome revolution in our secondary schools if teachers would refuse to teach anything the values of which they do not recognize as essential to pupil growth, and there would be an equally beneficent revolution if they would require pupils to learn only what they can be made to understand as of desired values for themselves.

*Thesis not consistently applied.* That the thesis under discussion is not consistently applied in our secondary schools can be seen by observing representative recitations. Many teachers will be found using the interests and recognized needs of the pupils to direct and motivate their learning, but many others are requiring the study of subject-matter that is presented in isolation as if it had justifying values in itself. Pupils are forced by extrinsic stimuli to solve thousands of abstract problems in algebra, to perform scores of "experiments" in science with no clear perception of the ultimate advantages that are supposed to accrue to them. What might be a real educational experience with recognized and convincing purposes constantly in mind becomes drudgery performed because of a desire "to pass the course," to please parents or teachers, to avoid punishment, or to enter a higher institution where the same kind of requirement, for aught they know, will be met.

The fact that some pupils learn to do set tasks with a degree of enthusiasm and with satisfactions at accomplishment and that a few are stimulated to pursue such study into specialization should not blind our eyes to the bad results. The majority of pupils, for whom the school has just as real a responsibility, never acquire enthusiasm for work the meaning of which they do not appreciate, and never experience the joy of consistent success which drives them on to continued study. And the gifted and successful might progress faster and acquire more if they were permitted to understand the purposes that should give direction to their work.

*Results of purposeless study.* Study without the understanding and acceptance of purposes which give it meaning and should determine every step results in a dependence on others for direction. It cannot result in the independence that is necessary for success outside of school. Moreover, it prevents the understanding of relative values.



Pupils who in matters of practical experience have a ready and acute perception of the difference between the significant and the meaningless often reach in school subjects a point where all things seem equally important and equally unimportant; where one thing is just as likely to be true as another; and whose intellectual effort is expended, not in discriminating between things, but in trying to make verbal connections between words. . . . They begin to use a measure of value and of reality for school subjects different from the measure they employ for the affairs of life that make a vital appeal. They tend to become intellectually irresponsible; they do not ask for the *meaning* of what they learn, in the sense of what difference it makes to the rest of their beliefs and to their actions. . . . [They] become mentally mixed, mixed not only about particular things, but also about the basic reasons that make things worthy of belief.<sup>1</sup>

The procedure in some classes reminds one of the dialogue between a vagrant angel and a tramp by the side of the road, as reported by H. G. Wells.

"Ever heard of a pithed frog?" inquired the Tramp.

"Pithed frog?" said the Angel. "No."

"It's a thing these here vivisectionists do. They takes a frog and they cuts out his brains and they shoves in a bit of pith in the place of 'em. Well, that there village is full of pithed human beings."

"Is that so?" said the Angel.

"That's so—you take my word for it. Every one of 'em 'as 'ad their brains cut out and chunks of rotten touchwood put in the place of 'em. And you see that little red place there?"

"That's called the national school," said the Angel.

"Yes—that's where they piths 'em," said the Tramp. "If they 'ad brains they'd 'ave ideas, and if they 'ad ideas they'd think for themselves. But you can go through that village from end to end and never meet anybody doing as much."

"Is it a painful operation?" asked the Angel.

"In parts. Though it ain't the heads that get hurt. And it lasts a long time. They take 'em young into that school, and they says to 'em, 'Come in 'ere and we'll improve your minds,' they says, and in the little kiddies go as good as gold. And they begins shovin' it into them. Bit by bit and 'ard and dry, shovin' out the nice juicy brains. Dates and lists and things. Out they comes, the brains in their 'eads, and wound up nice and tight. They bin pithed." <sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Dewey, *op. cit.*, pp. 44-45, 32-33.

<sup>2</sup> Slightly adapted from H. G. Wells, *The Wonderful Visit*.



*Bad concomitant learning.* Studying without a clear purpose accepted as one's own leads to bad concomitant learning. Pupils mistake the memorization of verbal phrases for real learning; they cannot perceive relative values, for they lack the criterion of purpose to give meaning to details; they accept what they are told without justifying reasons; they persist in effort not because of a state of doubt which is the stimulus to thorough inquiry, but because of extrinsic temporary pressure. In consequence, for the most part they go out of school thoroughly unable to find problems for themselves, to decide whether or not they are worthy of attention, to devise and evaluate means of solving them, and to do something worthwhile with the results. Moreover, they have been taught to be satisfied with the form of learning and they are not disturbed by the fact that acquired procedures are not effective in the lives they must lead.

*Immediate and remote purposes.* In infancy a purpose must be immediate; in the kindergarten children can be kept working for a party only a few days remote. But by the secondary school age there is such maturity that pupils can be motivated by purposes the full accomplishment of which lies considerably in the future. The thesis does not imply that in secondary school classes every purpose must be of a kind that can be achieved in one day or one week or even one year. Youth will have learned to consider and adopt as their own purposes the full satisfaction of which will lie far in the future or even those that can never be completely fulfilled. These, however extensive, will indicate contributing purposes, and these in turn others that are small enough to be achieved in perhaps a single recitation unit. The important thing is not the immediacy of the objective but the clearness with which it is perceived and the wholeheartedness with which it is approved or desired.

Every teacher should be concerned all the time to build up in the pupils' minds hierarchies of purposes, proceeding both from the ultimate to the subordinate necessary ones and from the immediate purpose of a single study unit to the larger and ever larger ones that find their meaning in some ultimate objective of education. This is not an easy task or one that can be achieved once for all by a single statement. It requires skill and patience to reveal purposes, to make them convincing to the pupils,



to show the necessity and the contribution of each to the next higher, which has already been approved, and to keep the hierarchy so constantly in mind that there is the unending pressure of intelligent motivation.

**IV. The Advantages.**—The advantages of applying the thesis in supervision for improving the education of youth are of the highest importance. Whatever effort is necessary to effect even an approximation of application is abundantly justified.

*Advantage 1.* In the first place, a teacher cannot give hospitable consideration to the purposes proposed by pupils or accept responsibility for revealing his own purposes so that they are understood and accepted without developing an improved attitude toward the individuals that he is attempting to teach. He will understand better the interests, the needs, the ingenuity, and the limitations of youth when he understands what they want to do for their own education. He will have to respect their personalities and adapt his plans to them when he proposes purposes the values of which he must make convincing. Thus the educative process becomes more human. It gets away from any assumption that the teacher is mechanically to cram learning into the ears of mechanically receptive robots. The beneficent effects of the thesis are first of all apparent on the teachers, who must have accepted it before they can advance far in professional growth.

*Advantage 2.* Another advantage from an attempt to apply the thesis is that it inevitably improves the quality of the teacher's purposes. When he gives hospitable consideration to the interests and needs of which pupils are conscious he is likely to recognize some desirable means of enriching his courses of study. And he cannot make the purposes that he has in mind convincing to the pupils unless he has first made the justifications for them entirely convincing to himself. This thesis powerfully supports and emphasizes the necessity that the one previously discussed<sup>1</sup> be consistently applied. The teacher must be able to justify the immediate purpose of every recitation unit in terms of its contribution to larger and remote purposes until there is an increasingly intelligent understanding by both him and his pupils of the entire educational program.

<sup>1</sup> In Chapter XI.



Using this thesis a teacher cannot safely attempt instruction that does not have a sound series of purposes, nor can he safely announce a good purpose and then abandon it in the recitation procedure. Youth are too keen to permit that, especially if they have been informed, as they should be, that they have a right to understand and to approve the plan of the education in which they are expected actively to participate. It would be foolhardy for a teacher to announce that the purpose of a lesson in Vergil is to appreciate the literary values of the passage assigned and then to devote his time to drill on ablatives and the principal parts of verbs. When he proposes that a physics lesson will help the pupils to understand and to improve the lighting in their homes or their radio reception, they are very likely, wanting this knowledge and ability, to hold the recitation to its announced purpose.

*Advantage 3.* Application of the thesis should result gradually in an increase on the part of the pupils of interest, of initiative, of self-confidence, and of growing independence. There is a vast difference between studying to satisfy a teacher and studying to satisfy a need of recognized worth. When attempting to satisfy a teacher of art who is hoping to develop an appreciation of good spacing in a composition without definitely sharing the purpose, pupils are entirely willing to move an object one way or another, to modify its size, or to remove it altogether from their drawing at the teacher's suggestion. They shoot at a target without seeing it. By following directions to aim higher or lower, move to the right or to the left on successive attempts they may ultimately learn where the target is, but this is neither intelligent nor economical learning.

One cannot be expected to be interested in what he does not understand, nor can one exercise initiative unless he has a definite purpose. The pupil's initiative often manifested in secondary school classrooms is too frequently exercised to thwart the purpose that the teacher has in mind but has failed to share with the prospective learners. Directed toward determining the purpose of the recitation or for achieving it when they believe in its worth, the powers of initiative can be exercised to beneficent growth. Pupils, like other human beings outside the school, become self-reliant and increasingly independent when they see the plans that they have helped to formulate



used successfully to achieve the purposes that they understand and approve. No one ever became self-reliant and independent by blindly following the directions of a master.

*Advantage 4.* Application of the thesis necessitates growth by pupils in the power to invent or discover means of successful achievement and to evaluate them for use. Knowledge of the purpose of activity is the only thing that will explain the means. The Sunday School teacher who lined up her pupils at a picnic and told them to "Race!" had no idea of this basic principle. The boys, wiser than she about foot races, very properly asked how long the race would be, for they knew that the sprint demanded for a short dash was entirely wrong for beginning a mile run. Pupils are sometimes observed at a blackboard "stuck" on a problem in mathematics because they do not know or care about the purpose. When questioned by the teacher as to what to do next, they hopefully suggest "Add?" or "Divide?" the rising inflection indicating that, ignorant of the purpose, they cannot select the means appropriate for its solution.

In any non-academic activity pupils not only are ready to make suggestions as to how to accomplish what they want, but frequently are fertile in inventing novel and ingenious means of procedure. This is precisely what is wanted in academic activities. The essential stimulus is, of course, a purpose that is understood and so approved that it is wholeheartedly adopted as their own. There can be no question but that exercise in proposing means, in evaluating them in terms of their probable effectiveness for accomplishing a desired end, and then of using them with skill is highly desirable in education that looks toward independent and self-reliant work.

Too much of secondary school teaching ignores this. Laboratory exercises usually set a problem, not always with desired clarity and convincingness, and then direct the pupils to precise procedures. They are to take so many cc. of this, mix it in a beaker with so much of that, heat gently, and note results. Such directions lead to mechanical work with an unnecessarily limited amount of thinking. And too much of secondary school teaching demands the use of means that are almost unique to the academic scene. The physics teacher who helped his pupils to find applications in their own environment of the principles



important in the subject and then challenged them to discover and to learn what was necessary to improve the machines that they had, was using the principle not only to make education effective in the immediate life of the community, but also to exercise the invention, evaluation, and use of appropriate means of solving physics problems when later they should be dependent on themselves alone.

It is easier, of course, to apply the principle under discussion in some subjects than in others. Clear and convincing purposes that challenge the discovery or the invention of appropriate means are not difficult to propose in shop, home economics, English composition, and health education, for instance; but even in such subjects teachers are frequently found directing the pupils exactly what to learn or do without giving them the education that most assuredly leads to growth in independence. Greater application of the principle is possible in every subject, however traditional its procedures. Teachers will be ingenious to find means of application if the supervisor leads them thoroughly to believe in its potency to achieve the kind of education most desired for developing youth.

*Advantage 5.* Application of the thesis results in more work by the pupils. It is a mistaken notion that boys and girls wish to escape work. There is nothing that they seek to avoid more than idleness, as may be proved by observing their ceaseless activity and by hearing the question reiterated in free time, "What can we do now?" What they do wish to escape is work the values of which they do not appreciate. Every teacher can give innumerable instances of youth putting forth great effort and exercising cleverness to get out of doing what they are not convinced is worth doing. Less effort and less cleverness properly directed would frequently lead to the accomplishment that the teacher desires.

In a manual training class a group of boys frittered away a whole semester without completing the single project that the teacher had in mind, the making of a costumer, an upright with pegs on which to hang articles of clothing. Instead of telling the pupils what they were to make and leading them to want to make it, the teacher first told the boys to get from the stock room pieces of wood 3" x 3" x 4'6". Not knowing what the stock was to be used for, the boys had no opportunity to judge whether



oak or pine or maple or birch would be best; they had no option but to find a piece of the exact measurements, though obviously there was possible a considerable amount of tolerance. As a result of such procedure on the part of the teacher there resulted continued confusion as each boy brought his piece of wood for approval and for direction as to what he should do next. Gradually the shop became a bedlam; the boys dawdled at their work and invented many means of killing time. That this is an extreme illustration of poor teaching is readily admitted; but it is an accurate report of what actually happened in a metropolitan school.

These boys were not unwilling to work. During the same semester the Scout Master proposed that each Patrol make something for use on their weekly hikes. The Eagle Patrol decided to make a trek cart. The members first decided what they wanted and then developed their plans. Because of limitations of space, the cart had to be made so that it could easily be taken apart and stored. Suggestions as to size, material, and other uses to which the cart could be put were made and discussed by the boys themselves. After decisions, they drew their working plans, computed the cost, raised the money, and made the cart, doing all the work except the blacksmithing; and when the job was completed they drew it on foot more than five miles to give a demonstration before a group of Scout Masters. From beginning to end the project consumed only five weeks of spare time. The boys were not unwilling to work at something that they understood and wanted.

A teacher of French who had difficulty in getting his pupils to hand in exercises of fifteen sentences three times a week interested them in corresponding with children in France. The letters ran from two to fifteen pages. A teacher of Latin proposed a Roman banquet, and the pupils worked so hard at the preparation that other teachers complained. A leader of a mathematics club brought in as a curiosity a mediaeval treatise in Latin, from which he read some interesting extracts. A girl interested in mathematics translated the whole book in a month. A teacher of mathematics explained how Eratosthenes in the third century B.C. computed the size of the earth, and as a result a group of boys voluntarily repeated this computation and others such as that by Posidonius and then were



carried on by their interest to further extra work in trigonometry. A teacher of biology told his class of Aristotle's marvelous discoveries, without a microscope, of shellfish, and three pupils in their spare time used the same methods with crayfish, later confirming their observations by extensive readings and the use of modern laboratory instruments. A teacher of English found that a pupil as a result of the class study of *Macbeth* had read all of Shakespeare's plays during one summer and had written an essay on his knowledge of plants. Such illustrations can be indefinitely multiplied.

Pupils are not afraid of work. They will exercise themselves mightily on anything that challenges their interest or arouses a desire. Obviously neither interest nor desire will be aroused unless what pupils are asked to do is motivated by a purpose that they understand and accept as their own.

As a result of a careful study Crawford reports <sup>1</sup> that "purpose, appreciable by the student, strongly influences his academic motivation and, thereby, his accomplishments." He found that on the whole students do more work on extra-curricular activities, the purposes of which they understand and approve, than on their academic studies, that they do more valuable and effective work on elective than on required courses, especially when the requirements of the latter lie outside the field of special interests, and that the intellectually most gifted student has in this country for some time been the least stimulated and the most neglected in assuring him purposes in which he can wholeheartedly believe.

*Advantage 6.* Application of this thesis results in more intelligent work. A rural school teacher who knew English grammar was corrected for saying, "He don't," a friend recalling "I do, thou dost, he does, he does not, he doesn't." He exclaimed, "Is *that* what conjugations are for?" He had done years of work on grammar, but it had not been intelligent work. A class of pupils were drilled daily until they knew the prepositions in alphabetic order. Fearing their teacher, they worked hard, but they did not work intelligently: they knew no value in learning an alphabetic arrangement of prepositions and they never realized that a part of speech is determined by a word's function. *Down*, for example, may be a preposition, a noun, a

<sup>1</sup> A. B. Crawford, *Incentives to Study*. Yale University Press, 1929.



verb, or an adverb. Children who had memorized the Pledge of Allegiance and who gave it with apparent enthusiasm daily in assembly, when required to write it wrote "Plegure legions," "in the visible," and the like, revealing unintelligent understanding and a useless exercise. No wonder pupils become "pithed" with purposelessly learned "dates and lists and things."

Intelligent work is possible only when a learner knows the purpose and adopts it as his own because achievement will lead to something that he recognizes as good for himself. A paramount requirement, then, of good teaching is that it uses the purposes proposed by pupils or else that it leads the pupils to comprehend, approve, and adopt as their own the purposes proposed by the teacher. With such purposes pupils can discover or invent and evaluate means to use, they can aim always toward a clearly perceived and desired goal, they will develop self-confidence and the ability to work independently, and they will exert themselves according to their capacity. Without such purposes there may be extrinsically stimulated drudgery, but there cannot be intrinsically motivated intelligent work.

"Give a youth ideas that to him are big enough and important enough, and you can, with proper guidance, marshal behind them all the emotional resources and moral qualities of his nature. Without ideas that to him, at least, seem big and important, morale vanishes in education, as everywhere else."<sup>1</sup>

*Advantage 7.* Finally, application of this thesis will lead to more economical learning. A man strolling in the fields day after day may eventually become familiar with the birds, but not so surely or in so short a time as if he went to the fields with the purpose of identifying as many birds as possible. A youth who had watched his father many times adjust the teeth of a harrow found that when he had to do it himself he had learned almost nothing of how to do the job correctly; he had utterly failed to comprehend the principle of setting the harrow teeth because he had no purpose in the idle watching that he had done. Everyone has learned what a penny is, but few of us can pass an examination on its details, for we have had no purpose to learn in which direction Lincoln's bust faces or the inscription above it. Hu-

<sup>1</sup> W. S. Learned, *Realism in American Education*. Harvard University Press, 1936.



man beings learn an astounding number of things incidentally, but unless there is a conscious, controlling purpose there is no assurance that they will learn any given thing and there is certainty that the learning will be wasteful of time.

There is so much to be learned in this civilization of ours and so little time in which to learn it that every means of economy should be used. The essential for economical learning is devotion to a purpose. Without that one cannot know what is important and necessary or what can be safely neglected; sent to bring a pin from the top bureau drawer he may come back with the entire contents of the drawer or with the wrong kind of pin unless he has understood the purpose of his errand. A boy economically learns football signals because he wants to co-operate in making a play go smoothly for a gain; a girl economically learns the details of a model dress because she wishes to copy it so that she may be in style. Similarly pupils economically memorize parts in a play that they are to present; they economically improve their enunciation that they may be understood; and they economically learn to introduce at the proper time the stage business that the audience may be pleased.

All of such illustrations are convincing of economic learning outside the ordinary recitations. The principle is just as sound for any kind of learning, academic or otherwise. If pupils cannot be motivated by a convincing purpose to learn what the course of study proposes, there is something wrong. They will not learn economically or assuredly otherwise. Perhaps the proposed material is at the time unsuited, perhaps the method is wrong, perhaps the teacher lacks skill. All of these factors can be changed; the material can be modified or postponed; the method can be improved; or the teacher can be developed or replaced. There is only one factor in the situation that cannot be changed, and that is the pupils themselves. They are the only children that the people who pay for the school have.

*A student's illustration.* A student who had got the idea that is expressed by the thesis wrote the following critical and constructive paper. It is presented with a minimum of editing.

These teachers are dumb clucks! They are always taking us from one place to another—they say advancing—in education, and they wonder why we can't find our way to those places again. Or why we don't try to.



I don't know enough about studies to make an illustration of what I mean by using them, but here's the way a teacher would get us from New York to Philadelphia. He would say, "Now, boys and girls, sometime in your life you will want to know the way to Philadelphia." (Sez you! mutters the class.) "So we will spend this month learning the way." Off to Philadelphia we go; we don't know why. But since the teacher is driving us, we go—sort of free passengers going along because our teachers and maybe our parents expect us to. The teacher is scared that if he doesn't drive, we wouldn't go, and that's just about right. But we have a pretty good time. We like to be together and there's a lot to talk about and occasionally something funny by the roadside. But our minds are on our own affairs—baseball, dates, radio, boats—lots of different things. Philadelphia doesn't mean a thing to us.

Since the teacher is driving, we don't worry about anything except the names of the towns we go through. On the examination if we can name the towns from New York only as far as Elizabeth we fail. But if we can name them as far as Trenton, we pass, even though that is still thirty-three miles from Philadelphia. None of us could find our way again. Some couldn't even drive a car without help.

Of course anybody but a teacher knows that the fellow who drives the car can always remember best how to make the trip a second time. The passengers aren't usually interested. When they are taken on the trip they are thinking about something else. This is the reason we fellows don't show up so well when we have to make the trip alone.

Suppose the teachers should go about it a different way. If they want us to go to Philadelphia, they should show us just what Philadelphia has to offer and they'd make us want to go. Maybe we'd like to see Independence Hall and the Liberty Bell, maybe we'd like to apply for a job, maybe we'd like to inspect the boats that Essington is building, maybe we'd like to look over the radio plant at Camden. All of us are interested in something in Philadelphia, or would be interested if we knew about it. All that the teacher needs to do is to show us what Philadelphia has to offer and we'll want to go. Then he can take the back seat, maybe giving a suggestion now and then—we'll get to Philadelphia someday—by automobile, bicycle, or hitch-hiking—we'll get there! If the teacher has ever before permitted us to make a trip alone, we'll use the information learned then in making the new trip. We fellows will drive this time because we *want* to get there *today*. We won't be content to stop at Elizabeth or Trenton and we aren't likely to turn off the



road to some other town. As we feel that we are likely to make the trip a second time, we will learn and remember the way. This time we are doing the driving to get something that we want.

V. **Objections.**—However convincing the general thesis may be “in theory,” teachers who are accustomed to the traditional methods of organizing and presenting subject-matter-to-be-learned are likely to raise certain objections to it as a guide to practical procedure. The most important of these objections will be presented and briefly discussed. What is sound in theory is practical for use. A difficulty of breaking away from that to which one is accustomed and of inventing means of using sounder procedures is to a professional teacher merely a challenge.

*Objection 1. Pupils do not know enough to propose worthy purposes for study.* If this means that they are incompetent to propose all the purposes that they should use in their education or to propose the most worthy purposes, the objection is admitted without argument. But it must not be forgotten that the ability to find purposes for oneself and to evaluate them as worthy is a highly desired characteristic. The habit of doing this characterizes the person of independence and of self-reliance. There is general agreement that the best way of learning anything is to practice it under wise direction. Therefore the best way of developing in pupils the desired ability and habit is to encourage them to propose purposes for their learning, to help them learn to evaluate these purposes in terms of still larger ones, and to use most effectively those which, all things considered, seem best. To be convinced of the need of such education by experience, teachers have only to observe the purposes that motivate youth in most of their out of school activities and to remember that after graduation or withdrawal they will have to depend for purposes on themselves or else be directed or influenced by those who have at heart the interests neither of the individuals nor of society at large.

*Objection 2. Pupils are not competent to comprehend or to evaluate the purposes proposed by the teacher.* To an extent they are not, but they ought to be. Under the requirements of our educational system, requirements that are likely to continue to be potent for a long time to come, it will be necessary for pupils occasionally to undertake and to master some set tasks



the values of which they are not yet mature enough to understand; but such tasks should be decreasingly frequent. If the pupils have previously been convinced by continuing experience that the teacher can be trusted to propose purposes of assured worth, they will be willing to undertake a certain amount of drudgery on his assurance that it is necessary to achieve something which they cannot understand now but of which they will realize the value later. Such a compromise with the thesis may be occasionally necessary, but a teacher should recognize it as a compromise and resort to it only when he is not competent to give to the pupils some justifying reasons. It is seldom of real importance, and its use is not likely to be truly educative.

When a teacher is not able to make convincing to the pupils the purpose that he has for an assignment, the question should be raised as to whether or not that purpose is the best for the pupils at their existing stage of development. The probability is that it is not. The achievement from the pursuit of one understood and approved purpose, to say nothing of the concomitant learnings, is likely to be many times more educative than that from the attempt to do without understanding or approval tasks set by the teacher.

As previously argued, the results from working purposefully are numerous and highly desirable. The fact that pupils lack competence to understand and to evaluate the purposes that direct a teacher in his planning, provided these purposes are sound and the best for the pupils at the time, is the very reason that they need an education which will lead to such competence. We do not wish to send out as the product of our schools individuals who are willing to undertake without understanding any tasks that are set or any suggestions that are made by others. A willingness to do this is an insuperable obstacle to democratic government, and it is pathetic evidence of a failure of education. The conclusion is inevitable that teachers should make a continual and consistent effort to lead pupils to comprehend and after intelligent evaluation to adopt as their own the purposes proposed by the teacher.

In some instances it is perfectly proper for a teacher to motivate the work of pupils by proposing a purpose that is not identical with the one that he has in mind. It would be fatal ordi-



narly for a teacher to announce that the class will study certain selections of literature for the purpose of learning to be more kindly, considerate, or tolerant of others, and yet such a purpose in his own mind may be thoroughly sound. He cannot propose it baldly because youth is sensitive about attempts to influence its ideals, though more keenly interested in them than at any other time of life. When it is not wise to announce to pupils the true purpose of a proposed experience or the purpose stated in its entirety, the teacher still has an obligation to propose some other purpose—such as to understand a common type of human being, to judge whether reported actions are justifiable, or to appreciate the development of a character—which can be recognized as worthy of attention and effort.

*Objection 3. Outside interests and needs are too strong to be successfully combated.* When a teacher states this objection he does not respect the values of what he is employed to teach. Fortunately pupils are full of interests and of consciousness of needs; otherwise they would be poor material for education. One challenge to the school is to help them evaluate their needs and to satisfy those that are of proved importance and to direct and develop existing interests to ends that are more valuable and desirable than without help they are likely to achieve. The wise and skillful teacher recognizes the necessity of adapting education to the pupils as they are, of beginning with their recognized interests and needs but not stopping with them. Another challenge to the school is to reveal higher interests, more important and significant needs, to promote and direct the former and to satisfy the latter.

One cannot successfully teach the appreciation of music unless he has abiding faith that Beethoven and Wagner or even DeKoven and Cadman have larger, keener, and more lasting satisfactions to offer than the composers of Tin Pan Alley, who may at the time please the pupils. One cannot successfully teach science or history or any other subject unless he himself has acquired from them interests that are more continuously stimulating and more progressively divergent to the higher values in life than the phenomena that engage the temporary attention of the pupils, and unless he has learned how a mastery of such subjects will reveal more important needs and lead to their satisfactions. This objection fades into insignificance with an



education that begins with pupils where they are, competes with transient, though possessive, interests, and with needs of little moment, and that reveals higher activities of such convincing worth that the pupils prefer them after satisfying experiences.

*Objection 4. One pupil's interests and needs will not be those of all the others.* Not always. But the probability is that interests and needs of which one pupil is strongly conscious are common to others in a similar environment, even though they have not been recognized as existing, and that they can be made of obvious value by discussion. There is usually a certain amount of contagion in such a matter: conviction and enthusiasm of one frequently are conveyed to others in the same group. But whether the interest or need strongly felt by one pupil can be extended to others or not, they cannot wisely be neglected. They should at least lead to individual help, to special assignments in the regular class, or to a project carried on outside the school. The reasons why they should not be neglected are two: first, they are very likely to lead to acquisitions worthwhile to the individual; and, second, they help to forward him in the habit of demanding and intelligently using reasonable purposes for everything that he does.

*Objection 5. Attempts to use the thesis will limit the field of instruction and learning.* In the beginning the field will undoubtedly be limited; a teacher who accepts responsibility for making pupils understand and approve the purposes of their work will find that he needs to make more time for his assignments and that some which he has been accustomed to use he will have to abandon entirely because he cannot justify them to the prospective learners. But every success makes the next attempt easier; pupils acquire the habit of desiring and demanding understanding of purposes, and in consequence they will coöperate in getting it. Moreover, after approving a purpose, they can and will work more intelligently, more economically, and more effectively; so that there is no sound reason to expect that the amount of ground that they cover, to say nothing of the education that they acquire, will be less than under traditional practice. The failure of pupils to advance in independent power semester by semester is now one of the serious criticisms of secondary schools. Better methods ought to result in more rapid and at the same time more substantial progress.



*Objection 6. The subject will not be completed* if the teacher accepts this added responsibility. As argued under the preceding objection, pupils with understanding approval of purposes are likely in the long run to do more and better work, and thus actually to cover ground more rapidly. If it is true, this objection is not valid. But even if an outlined course is not "covered" in a given time, the objection should not materially weaken the case for the thesis. What pupils master with intelligent understanding and what they are likely to do with it independently, both immediately and later, are the essential desideratum, not the material that they mechanically cover. Some teachers have developed an idea that what is outlined in a syllabus or in an adopted textbook determines a sacred obligation for them to complete it. If they had any appreciation of the uncertainty in the minds of the authors as to how much to include, they would change their attitude. A tabulation of the contents of several syllabi or textbooks for the same subject will reveal such variations in amount and in topics that any idea of the one adopted being uniquely right must be abandoned. The mastery of essentials for use so far as time permits is more important than mechanically covering an arbitrary amount of set tasks.

*Objection 7. The organization of a course will not be logical.* This final objection is based on an assumption that the organizing principle of a course of study, or of a series of educational experiences, should be the logical relations of the parts. In so far as this expedites and facilitates learning and real education, it is a justifiable principle. But there are cogent reasons for questioning its efficacy. Modern education very generally approves that a better principle of organization seeks to relate every unit of study to the needs of the learner, needs of which he is aware. This in no way inhibits a logical organization of a series of experiences. It merely substitutes a better principle for a less effective one. The better principle enables the pupils to appreciate the developed organization and it permits the teacher to emphasize it in every way that facilitates good teaching and economical learning.

The usual "logical" organization of a course of study is far less important than teachers ordinarily think. As a matter of fact, in any subject there exist numerous organizations, no one of which has proved its superiority. Moreover, pupils seldom



become aware of the organizations anyway, as may be proved by asking any class to report the organization of a subject that is on the point of being "completed." A general plan is ordinarily perceived only by one who is near the end of his journey. Standing on the top of a mountain one can see how the road and paths turn and climb to the elevation; but the one struggling up the acclivities is aware mostly of the bushes, the boulders, and the crevasses that impede his progress. He wants to know how to get by them. If it is possible for him, after having developed a desire to get to the top, to understand the topography, including the location of the easiest means of ascent, he will be intelligent about overcoming obstacles in order to reach the paths that lead to the top. But how few pupils are ever helped early in their learning efforts to understand the organization that seems so important to the teacher.

The basic justification of the integrated curriculum, of unit learning, or of projects is that they all necessitate or at least facilitate application of the thesis under consideration. Units of learning in the integrated curriculum develop out of needs felt and approved by pupils, drawing their materials from any source whatever, and they require pupils to see reason for their immediate purposes in the meaning of the large approved project. Thus more easily is recognized the important hierarchy of purposes to which reference has several times been made. The smaller projects have a similar result, though usually they are less comprehensive and less obviously related to and dependent on meanings of large educational import. "Too many so-called 'problems,' " in reality assigned tasks, "call at best for a kind of mechanical dexterity in applying set rules and manipulating symbols. In short, there is a challenge to understanding only when there is either a desired consequence for which means have to be found by inquiry, or things (including symbols in the degree in which experience has matured) are presented under conditions where reflection is required to see what consequences can be effected by their use."<sup>1</sup>

**VI. Means for Leading Teachers to Approve and Use the Thesis.**—The importance of the thesis that for every recitation unit pupils should propose a purpose or else comprehend, approve, and adopt as their own the purpose proposed by the

<sup>1</sup> John Dewey, *op. cit.*, p. 147.



teacher lays a great responsibility on the supervisor. His first challenge is to convince the teachers that the thesis is soundly justified by common sense, by the accepted modern theories of education, and by psychology; his second, to lead them to realize the extent to which it is not generally applied, with the consequent bad results; and his third, to help them skillfully and continuously to make application in their daily work.

It is easy to make a good case for the thesis, to show that it is violated in a large percentage of the practice in almost every secondary school, and to reveal the consequent ineffectiveness of teaching. It is relatively easy to get from teachers expressions of approval of the ideal. But it will be a difficult and a never-ending task to overcome objections that will be raised and to help teachers to learn how to translate the ideal into consistent practice. No supervisor can expect to achieve in one or two or three general meetings or in a few conferences full understanding, complete conviction, or the necessary development of powers. The very difficulty of the challenge emphasizes the necessity of keeping continually at it.

The explanation and the general justification of the thesis can be made by a number of the means suggested in the preceding chapter. Especially important are meetings of the entire staff followed by discussions in groups homogeneous with respect to the subjects taught and, to a less extent, to maturity and experience. In the group meetings, following clarification and the removal of objections, there may well be a study of reported lessons and of units in textbooks and syllabi with the intent to propose such modifications as will approximate the application of the thesis. Lesson plans and proposed units of instruction, especially in the beginning on novel topics, may well be discussed and improved. Directed observation and demonstration lessons may profitably be used and discussed, and both recognition of successful effort and praise for it should be tactfully expressed.

But by its very nature this thesis demands adaptation of subject-matter and somewhat of method to the peculiar characteristics of every group of pupils. The lesson plan that proves successful with one group may need material modification for another with different interests and needs or with different emphasis on the consciousness of interests and needs. The lesson plan, however successful it may have proved with one group,



needs to be adapted and left more or less fluid in preparation for stimulating the learning by another class. For this reason the supervisor needs to lay a firm foundation for his work in achieving on the part of the teachers a thorough understanding of the principle and a wholehearted conviction that it is both sound and practicable. With this beginning, achieved mostly in faculty and group meetings, he can enter upon his campaign of individual and highly personal help.

Following are listed some suggestions which a supervisor may make to teachers, suggestions which are essential or at least facilitative of improving the teachers' ability and habit of applying the thesis.

1. Be sure that in planning for every recitation unit you have a purpose that is worthy, definite, and as far as possible specific to the pupils to be taught. The relations of these purposes to each other, all looking toward an ultimate educational objective, should always be clearly in mind. Unless the teacher has such purposes, he will be able to make little progress in developing pupils to propose sound purposes or to adopt as their own the purposes proposed for him.

2. Strive constantly to reduce to the vanishing point the use of artificial incentives—such as examinations, marks, penalties, threats, extrinsic rewards, parental approval, the prestige of the subject, and the hope to advance to a higher institution—and emphasize the intrinsic value of the experience itself. Such extrinsic incentives as mentioned have deep roots in the experiences of pupils outside as well as in the school, and the development of an appreciation of the more important, more effective, and more lasting intrinsic motives often finds serious obstacles in this very fact. The development will succeed only as the achieved results are manifestly more satisfying to the pupils.

3. Set the stage to arouse a feeling of need. This may be a need for some activity leading to a concrete realization or it may be a need for satisfying intellectual curiosity. By introducing something unusual and puzzling, there can be created a genuine perplexity that stimulates the proposal of sound purposes or the appreciation of those that are suggested.

4. Become well informed as to the community life, the activities carried on outside the school, the interests, and the needs of



the pupils, the immediate and the eventual, those of which they are conscious and those for which they can be led to desire satisfactions. The farther education advances, the more pupils develop interests and a desire for needs beyond those of their immediate environment. But it must be constantly remembered that one most easily and surely advances by beginning where he is. There is no real progress by the teacher unless he takes his pupils with him. He has to know the activities, interests, and felt needs in order to use them as the beginning for advance.

5. Plan units of experience which, beginning in what is known and valued, call forth the originality, ingenuity, and inventiveness of pupils to propose purposes. Pupils are able to propose purposes, as is manifest by their voluntary activities, purposes which usually are directive to what they wish to achieve. A teacher's challenge is to make pupils conscious of new needs and to develop in them the ability more and more independently to satisfy them. The good habits outside of school must be introduced, directed, and made better in the classroom.

6. Learn to be hospitable to suggestions of purposes by pupils. Evaluate them fairly and relate them in their minds to the important objectives that they desire or can be made to desire. In attempting to apply the thesis under consideration teachers will often be annoyed by the remoteness of the purposes proposed by pupils from the matter in hand or the objectives that he has in mind. Similarly pupils are often annoyed by the remoteness of the purposes proposed by a teacher from the interests or needs that they feel important at the time. A wise teacher has to develop understanding and patience, often abandoning his own purpose and plan or modifying it so as to utilize the intelligent and entirely proper interests of the pupils. Sometimes, of course, they are too remote from the business in hand to be considered in the classroom. Whether or not they can be utilized in any way for the pupils' education the teacher will have to decide. But often the interests will be dynamic of valuable results if they are directed to objectives of which both the pupils and the teacher can approve.

7. Encourage the pupils continually to set larger, more worthwhile, and still achievable goals for themselves. As these are set



and desired, the pupils will develop the desired habit of proposing contributing purposes and of intelligently devising means of achieving them.

8. Allow the pupils increasingly to decide, using the objectives that they have formulated as desirable for them, which of the proposals made by their fellows are worthy of their approval and adoption to direct what they shall do for their immediate educational development. The teacher will of course share in the discussion; but the more frequently the pupils make the decision, the more capable they become in directing their own immediate and later growth. They should learn and use the social criterion, the greatest good to the greatest number.

9. Give the pupil who originates a proposal that is approved opportunity to play an important part in carrying it out. Such a practice is a proper reward and it encourages others to use their own powers with subsequent good results.

10. Lead pupils to understanding that careful planning results in the most assured and most economical results. They can appreciate the value of planning for an immediate achievement, and gradually they can be led to understand the wisdom of larger plans, even for those that concern the work of an entire semester. Participation in the formulation of plans of gradually increasing size or understanding and approval of such plans leads to wiser decisions concerning proposals by pupils or by the teacher of minor units of activity.

11. So far as possible allow and encourage the pupils to share in making the plan for the next recitation unit or for the next group of units. Usually this plan will grow out of the activities that are being carried on. Purposes not fully achieved will provide a starting point for the plan for the immediately ensuing work. But occasionally the coöperatively developed plan will lead to the desired objectives by a significant departure from what has just been done. A teacher cannot accept such a suggestion unless he has in his own mind a sound understanding of what education is, of the special objectives for his subject at the advancement of the pupils at the time, and of the fact that there are many good means for effective achievement. He has to be patient and tolerant to permit the pupils to learn by experience under direction which of the means are in the long run the best.



12. Keep the class discussions to the purpose proposed in the developed plan, checking departures from it and the introduction of extraneous matters not arbitrarily but by showing that they do not lead economically, if at all, to achievement of what has been set up as goals, either immediate or ultimate. Inculcate the method of openminded and fair consideration of everything that is proposed with a subsequent evaluation and use of what is contributory. The prime essential of inculcation is exemplification: the teacher himself must manifest hospitality to the expressed ideas of others, eagerness to understand, fairness to appreciate, and ability to use the good to improve and promote the plan of procedure.

13. In the discussion of a new topic stimulate pupils to find or to imagine situations where the knowledges and skills that are being acquired can be used profitably and effectively in their own activities now or subsequently. Appreciation of probable and even of possible uses will not only motivate intelligent learning but it will also lead to planning for application, which is so frequently now neglected in secondary education.

14. Learn to capitalize the limitations of equipment by challenging pupils to overcome the obstacles to achieving objectives that they desire. Much of the equipment desired by schools is neither used nor found in life situations that must be met, and the better pupils learn to do what they want to do anyway by means of what they can find or invent the more likely they are to do it later. In one school the boys made practically all of the equipment that they needed in an elementary science course, using materials that they found at home, that they picked up from junk, or that they could buy at small cost. In another school with an inadequate library the pupils learned to use several facilities—such as books lent by the state department of education—magazines and newspapers to supplement their text in social studies. Accepting the challenge to overcome the obstacle of limited equipment may lead to a more thorough understanding of the purposes of the proposed experiences and also to more likelihood that later needs outside school will be satisfied by what is available.

15. Hold repeated individual conferences with pupils who are hard to motivate. Find the cause of the difficulty and try to remove that. The surest means of helping such pupils is to



begin with the interests and with the needs of which they are conscious and which they consider important. When they have been led by experience to realize that the school can furnish desired help on these, the teacher can relate existing interests and needs to the plan of the course of study and gradually reveal and make desired new and more important ones. Some pupils seem dull and unresponsive simply because they have never been helped to see that education actually does satisfy the needs of which they are conscious or that it can reveal to them higher needs than they have ever before imagined and enable them to experience satisfying activities.

16. Devise methods by which pupils can measure their growth in the education that they have proposed or approved for themselves. There are reports of numerous studies which have found that one of the most potent stimuli to growth, even in mechanical learning, is a knowledge of progress. The ordinary test or formal examination seldom reveals to pupils the extent to which they have learned to propose for themselves worthy purposes for study, to evaluate those proposed to them, to find and invent suitable means, and to know when they have achieved satisfactorily. Tests should do all of these things, and pupils should be encouraged to help devise those that will and to interpret the results in order that they may be encouraged by a knowledge of their own progress and both directed and motivated to further effort by understanding of what they still need to do.

### EXERCISES

1. Read Chapter I of Dewey's *Interest and Effort in Education*. What bearings does it have on the thesis under consideration?

2. To what extent do you voluntarily undertake activity or learning outside of school without having in mind a purpose satisfactory to you? What are the effects when you do and when you do not have such a purpose?

3. Imagine that you are making a visit to an art or science museum or to an historic shrine, that you are taking a walk through a region rich in scientific phenomena, that you are inspecting an industrial plant, or that you are "shopping" for an article about which you have inadequate information. What should you like to learn from a guide? What does your answer to this question indicate concerning the validity of the thesis on purposeful learning?



4. To what extent is the thesis on purposeful learning applied in the secondary school teaching that you have done or that you have observed? Explain its neglect.

5. Why is the application of this thesis easier in the elementary than in the secondary school? What criticisms of the curriculum and methods of either school does this imply?

6. Make a list of all of the advantages that you can think of from the application of this thesis. Compare them with the advantages that are hoped for from the usual procedure in secondary school teaching. Are any of the latter advantages necessarily lost by attempts to achieve the former?

7. What concomitant learnings by pupils are there in secondary school recitations as ordinarily conducted? What is the permanency of such learnings? What are their effects on subsequent learning and activity, outside the school as well as in?

8. What concomitant learnings should you hope there would be by pupils who are taught according to the directions of this thesis? Evaluate each one and tell how you would plan for its most assured achievement.

9. How effective and how desirable in society is a person who has developed the habit of looking to others for direction as to what he shall do next with no demand that he approve or even that he understand the purpose that the other person has in mind?

10. How do you explain the frequent indubitable good effects of extrinsic stimuli? Do they also have some bad effects? Evaluate both in the whole result.

11. How can you explain the effectiveness in life of many people who have had bad educations which have assumed no responsibility for purposeful learning? To what extent do they transfer to their life activities the materials and methods learned in school? When we consider education, do the successes of some such people tend to blind us to the failure of others who have had the same training?

12. To what extent are effective people in the world aware of hierarchies of purpose—of an ultimate purpose to which every other one contributes directly or indirectly? How did they learn to develop and consistently to use such unified groups of purposes? How can youth be taught to appreciate the need and to develop the habit of using organized groups of purposes of gradually increasing size and unity?

13. What is the best evidence that pupils have comprehended, approved, and adopted as their own the purposes proposed by a teacher?

14. How important is the probable slowing up of normal progress by a class when the teacher assumes responsibility for inviting and



hospitably considering purposes that its members propose or for insuring that they understand, approve, and adopt as their own the purposes that he proposes? What compensations may confidently be expected later?

15. Why are the purposes that pupils propose for school work, when they are challenged to make suggestions, so often trivial and disappointing? What do their responses indicate concerning the pupils' needs? Compare and explain the nature of the purposes they propose for some activity—like planning a party or a football rally—that they understand and approve.

16. List all of the obstacles that seem to you important in attempting to apply this thesis. Tell how you would overcome or minimize each one.

17. Draw up for discussion with your colleagues an examination in the subject that you teach which will measure the extent to which pupils (a) have learned to propose worthy and definite purposes; (b) to devise and to evaluate means for achieving them; (c) to know the extent to which they have succeeded; and (d) to relate them to other larger purposes to which they are intended to contribute.



## CHAPTER XIII

---

### CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

---

**I. Common Practices.**—There is little carefully collected objective evidence of the number, kind, and extent of visits by secondary school principals to classrooms, but it is common knowledge that they “drop in” frequently and that, as a rule, they do not remain long. Several studies made of the activities of elementary school principals report that they make about twelve observational visits each week, remaining on an average for twenty-one minutes. Hampton reports that of the 15.18 per cent of the week devoted by 130 elementary school principals to the supervision of instruction, more than nine-tenths of that time was spent in observation, leaving less than two per cent of the entire week for preparation, study of the observation, conferences and reports, and other assistance. Probably high school principals do not visit classes so often or stay so long. Social science teachers reported to Hughes and Melby that only 23.3 per cent of the supervisory visits to them were for a full period and that 20.4 per cent were for a half-period; the rest were casual and brief.

Such data should not set a standard to a principal who is planning a supervisory program, but should rather reveal an opportunity of improving on professional practices.

Visits to classrooms are frequently for the purpose of inspection, merely to see that the teacher and class are on the job and that the physical conditions are normal. Sometimes there is no evidence that they have any definite purpose: the principal drops in, speaks pleasantly to the teacher and perhaps to the pupils, stands around aimlessly for a brief time, and departs. There may be a certain amount of value from such perfunctory visits, but obviously the possibilities for a contribution to the improvement of instruction are neither seen nor used. It is obvious that there can be no problems shared in common by the teacher and the principal unless the latter knows at first



hand what is being attempted in the classrooms—the purposes sought, the materials and methods used, the attitudes and reactions of the pupils, and all other factors that make for effective learning. And he can get the facts far better from his own observation than he can from any report by the teacher, who at best is likely to have only partial and prejudiced information.

*Teachers' attitudes.* It is often asserted that secondary school teachers are terrified by visits from their superior officers and that they want the fewest possible number of them, but such attitudes certainly are not typical. How teachers feel toward visits to their classrooms by the principal will be determined in large part by the experiences they have had. If the visits have been merely perfunctory with no unpleasant results, teachers will be indifferent to them; if principals manifest a professional interest and competence to understand what is being attempted and to help toward improvement in practice and growth, teachers will be not only hospitable but also eagerly active to increase the number. Of the 363 reasons that 257 teachers gave <sup>1</sup> for visits by supervisory officers, 71 were in their opinion for rating purposes, 70 for inspecting the order and discipline, 41 were a perfunctory duty, 17 were social in nature, and about one-third were for the purposes of supervision. There can be little wonder that these teachers were not as receptive to or as respectful of visits as could be desired. Other less formal reports indicate that teachers have little information from the principal as to why he visits their classrooms, information that is difficult to give or to guess if the purpose is indefinite.

The attitudes of elementary school teachers have been more carefully studied and reported by several investigators. Kyte reports that "more visitation and study of classroom problems" was ranked fifth of fifteen items of aid desired from principals; Nutt found that the teachers in four cities rated "more explicit criticisms of lessons taught under observation" second among the helps desired from supervisors;<sup>2</sup> and Southall reports <sup>3</sup> that teachers ranked high all visits to classrooms for supervisory purposes, placing long visits as third among 36

<sup>1</sup> J. M. Hughes and E. O. Melby, *Supervision of Instruction in High School*, p. 33. Public School Publishing Co., 1930.

<sup>2</sup> These two items are from the *National Education Association Research Bulletin*, Vol. VII, No. 5, "The Principal as a Supervisor."

<sup>3</sup> Eighth Yearbook of the National Education Association Department of Superintendence, 1930.



items. There is no reason to suspect that the judgment of secondary school teachers would be materially different if they appreciated the necessity of visits for careful observation of teaching as a part of a comprehensive program for improving instruction, a program about which they were informed and in which they were permitted to have an active part in preparing.

**II. The Purposes of Classroom Observation.**—The following list of purposes for visiting classes may not be complete, but it should prove suggestive to the principal planning a supervisory program. The administrative purposes are intentionally omitted.

1. *To learn the educational practices of each teacher and to evaluate them by reference not only to basic principles but also to the practices of other teachers.* It is a primary responsibility of the principal to know what each teacher is doing and how effective his efforts are, and the most reliable means for obtaining this information is first-hand observation. Of course in large schools he will be aided by reports from heads of departments and special supervisors, who have also repeatedly and carefully observed the teaching; but even such reports do not excuse him from the obligation to visit classes and to see for himself what is going on. That the rating of teachers on the basis of such observations will eventually follow is a matter of course, but that is not primarily their purpose. It is to learn what the teacher's procedures are in order that the principal may know the school, of which he is employed as the professional leader, and to plan for its steady improvement. As he observes he will constantly appraise the practices in terms of the basic educational principles that he has accepted. By these all teaching will in some respects fall short of the ideal; therefore, lest he tend to become overly critical, he should evaluate each procedure he observes in terms also of the practices of other teachers in the school. He wishes to know how good the teachers are relatively to their colleagues. The wise principal will also in order to appreciate the relative merit of teaching observe work from time to time in other schools. The knowledge that the principal gains from repeated observations of classes will be the basis for his entire program, both of administration and of supervision.

2. *To discover the especially good and promising characteristics of each teacher.* This purpose could perhaps be subsumed under the preceding one, but its importance warrants its being



given separate emphasis. Every teacher does some things better than others, and his contribution to the effectiveness of the school is determined in large part by his being assigned to those duties that he can do best. One characteristic of the efficient administrator is his ability to discover the peculiar talents and aptitudes of each teacher and his ingenuity to devise means of using them most effectively. A skilled coach may improve the ability of each member of the squad to perform in all the track and field events; but what he actually does is to assign each man to the sprints, the distance runs, the high jump, or the weights according to the promise of success that his natural gifts manifest. It is of course impossible for a principal always to be similarly selective in his assignments: there are certain things to be taught and there are certain men and women to teach them, sometimes with little regard to natural aptitudes, interest, or preparation. But the recognition of obstacles does not impeach the ideal: the principal should be constantly alert to discover what each teacher can do best, what he gives promise of doing even better with opportunity, encouragement, and direction. When that is known the principal can sometimes shift assignments, and more often he can be prepared to make better assignments the next year.

The discovery of special interests and aptitudes does not always involve a shift of assignments of subjects or classes to be taught. More often it indicates some special duty—like the encouragement of pupils' outside reading, the collection of specimens for an exhibit, the direction of some extra-curricular club, or personal work with problem pupils—that may be assigned. And most often it points to the recognition, encouragement, and direction of some unusual feature of effective teaching, such as skill in making good assignments, in formulating questions, in directing study, in using concrete or verbal illustrations, in remedial teaching, or in simple experimentation. If a teacher can be developed so that he has unusual strength in any detail of his work, he will contribute materially to the reputation of the school, he can be used for demonstrations before other teachers, either singly or as a group, and he will be more receptive of help to improve the practices in which he may be weak. A teacher will grow most rapidly not by striving to make his poor practices better, but by first becoming con-



spicuously strong in something. What the most promising possibilities are, the principal can discover best by constantly looking for them when observing class teaching.

3. *To stimulate teachers to do their best.* Even if they had no better purpose, observational visits would to some extent be justified by their results in stimulating teachers toward their best efforts in order that the principal may see how good they are. Every teacher, however conscientious, will make more careful preparation and put forth a little more effort if he knows that his professional leader is going to observe the work. This is not, or should not be, so much a desire to get a better rating as it is the manifestation of professional pride to demonstrate possessed skill. The better the relations between the principal and the teachers, the stronger will be the desire to be found at one's peak of efficiency. Discussions of the surprise observational visits frequently condemn them absolutely, but they have at least this value. The purpose cannot rank among the more important ones in a program of coöperative effort to improve instruction, but it should not be overlooked or unduly deprecated.

4. *To discover the needs of teachers.* Some needs that teachers have they will report to a principal whom they believe is competent and willing to give help; others they will conceal through fear of criticism or a poor rating. There are always important needs, too, which a teacher may have but of which he is not aware. That the latter may be discovered and that the former may be understood a principal must observe class after class with his mind alert to the problem. It is not sufficient merely to discover and to understand teachers' needs. During the observation and later in preparation of his plans for individual or group conferences the principal must set himself to analyze the needs, to find their causes, and to devise means of coöperative work that promise to lead to their satisfaction. He is prepared for this service partly by his professional training and by his broader outlook, but also especially by the capital accumulated from the numerous observations of practices in his own and in other schools.

5. *To discover the extent to which teachers are endeavoring to apply supervisory suggestions previously made.* It is not sufficient for a supervisor merely to give in group or individual conferences suggestions for the improvement of practices. Human



nature being what it is, he must follow up the suggestions to see that they are understood and that the teachers are making a reasonable effort to manifest their expressed approval by attempts to apply them. The only certain means of getting this information is observing the work of the teacher in his classroom. There he will find evidence if the teacher really understood and accepted the suggestions made, and there he will find evidence of his competence to grow in the particular matter with little or no additional aid. Some teachers will need much additional assistance, especially in details. The more general the suggestions that have been made, the more they were in the form of principles that demand ingenuity for application, the greater will be the supervisor's responsibility for check-up, which will probably indicate what more is necessary for him to do. The observation may indicate that certain parts of the supervisory program are deficient, that the principal has been too abstract or too remote from the immediate problems of the school, that he has overestimated the assimilative powers or the attitude of the teachers, or that he himself has been ineffective in presentation or in convincingness. Classroom observation will reveal not merely the efforts to grow that the teachers are making but also changes which the principal should make in his efforts at supervision.

6. *To get material that will determine what the supervisory program should be.* A principal can make a reasonably good supervisory program based on his general knowledge of what education, and especially secondary education, should be and on the new developments and contributions by leaders, but he cannot make the best possible program unless he knows intimately the work of every individual teacher and the needs that it manifests. Many of the needs will be in common, and these will lead to consideration in group meetings; others that are peculiar can be taken up in the individual conferences. As the principal makes observational visits he should take notes on the needs of each teacher for remedial or constructive help, and from study of these accumulated notes he can best make and from time to time modify his supervisory program.

7. *To develop confidence in the supervisory program because the teachers realize that the principal knows what they are doing.* There is no criticism more frequently expressed of administra-



tive officers than that they do not know or understand intimately the work of their subordinates. In consequence of this attitude teachers are often skeptical of the value of suggestions made to them by a principal who is attempting supervision. The fact that they think he is remote and aloof from conditions as they know them and that being uninformed he cannot competently either appraise or improve their practices makes them inhospitable even to suggestions that are good or to those that they could by coöperation make good. To overcome or to forestall such criticism some principals voluntarily teach one class, which certainly gives an intimacy of knowledge of conditions in that particular situation which is unobtainable otherwise. But that is not sufficient, for it does not cover wide enough ground and it does not reveal the possibilities and the needs that could be found by observing the work of each and every teacher. Every teacher furnishes a peculiar supervisory problem. That can be found only by repeated and skillful observational visits. When teachers are assured that the principal knows what they are doing, they will at least be more open-minded to the suggestions he makes for improvement and growth.

8. *To build up the principal's capital by the accumulation of a rich store of knowledge.* However much a principal may know from his study and from his own experiences in teaching, he can always learn more by wide and appreciative observation. Whenever he visits a class in action he should be alert to see and to remember any procedure or any detail that is unusually meritorious. Besides indicating peculiar possibilities for directing the development of the demonstrating teacher, the record will be of value to pass on to others who may use it, usually modified, in a similar situation. The longer a principal observes classes, the greater his accumulation of knowledge of especially good procedures and devices, each one of which he will evaluate by his philosophy of education. He cannot well direct other teachers to visit in order to see good teaching unless he first knows where good teaching is.

9. *To aid in integrating and unifying the school.* A highly important responsibility of the principal is gradually to change the faculty from a number of individuals, each working in his own way toward more or less individualistic objectives, to an



integrated group working coöperatively toward ends commonly understood and desired. To do this even in part he must learn by observation what the practices of each teacher are, how they contribute to the approved objectives of the school, and how they articulate for this purpose with the practices of all the other teachers. And after the faculty in group meetings has decided on a program of integration, the principal will need to follow it up first of all by additional observations leading to further work with groups or with individuals.

10. *To know the pupils.* That someone representing the school other than the individual teachers should know each pupil for the purposes of guidance is evident without argument. Provision for this is usually made in the larger schools by the appointment of special counselors, with or without teaching duties; in smaller schools the principal alone has the final responsibility. But besides its contributions to guidance, a knowledge of individual pupils is important in aiding a principal to formulate, to modify, and to administer his supervisory program. Much of the desired knowledge he can get from his general acquaintance with the community, from the record system of the school, and from talks with the teachers; but after all of these means have been used there will still remain some information that can best be acquired by observation of the activities and reactions of the pupils, both as individuals and as groups, in their classes. His concern is not so much what the teachers do as what the pupils learn. And as one means of knowing that he will make careful classroom observations.

For this observation of the pupils at their learning there are several purposes. In the first place, the principal can get some evidence as to the effectiveness of the teacher's activity and formulate a judgment as to what changes need to be made for greater effectiveness. In the second place, he can learn how he can facilitate better teaching by transferring certain pupils who are not in rapport with the teacher to other classes or how otherwise to bring about a better spirit in the class. In the third place, he can often recognize special possibilities and needs of pupils that have been overlooked by the teacher and thus cooperate in planning for their advancement or help. And, finally, he can learn the pupils so as better to answer criticisms from parents or the public and also he can learn what he can use in



promoting the interests of the school by the right kinds of publicity.

11. *To learn what administrative changes will facilitate good teaching.* By observation of classes at work the principal often appreciates not only that improved conditions will result by the transfer of certain pupils to other teachers, but also that by his own influence he can change the attitudes of individuals, or at least the overt manifestation of them in behavior, so that the teacher is more largely freed for attention to teaching and the class is not prevented from learning by conduct which is often contagious as well as temporarily disturbing. By observation the principal can discover, too, administrative changes, such as regulations about class passing, the handling of excuse slips, and the reading of notices, that should be made to facilitate teaching. And he will get first-hand evidence of the need of equipment and supplies.

**III. The Obstacles to Classroom Observation.**—There are no real reasons why a principal should not observe the teachers and pupils at work, but there are several obstacles that make it difficult for him to do so. Practically every principal already makes some visits to classes for the purposes of keeping up social contacts, of general inspection, and of rating the teachers; it is far from impossible for him to extend the length of these visits and to add purposes important from a supervisory point of view. One obstacle to his doing this is that it is frequently not expected by the teachers, the superintendent, or the public. They do expect efficient administration, the care of the physical plant, and such direction as leads to approved deportment by the pupils, and a failure here is so obvious that censure inevitably follows. It may be said that successful attention to these matters is necessary in order that the principal may attend to the improvement of instruction. He is often criticized for not being in his office at the convenience of someone who wishes to see him, but he is seldom criticized for not being in the classrooms, without which he cannot know the school or plan wisely for its betterment. The too common attitude of the teachers and superintendent as well as of the public is merely evidence that they have not understood the responsibility of the principal for educational leadership and that they have not experienced or appreciated its beneficent results. It takes strength of charac-



ter to do and to persist in doing what ought to be done but what others do not expect, and it is only the exceptional leader, concerned with his own professional growth as well as with the constant improvement of the school, who will persist in observing classes as a basis for his supervisory program.

A second obstacle is the suspicion and even the hostility of teachers who have experienced visits by the principal only for the purpose of rating them or of finding faults that were reported without constructive help. Whether this obstacle is due to the principal or to his predecessors, it is not difficult to overcome. A statement in teachers meeting of some of the purposes for which the observations will be made is a good beginning, but the best means is of actually following the observation with expressions of true appreciation and with procedures that are obviously of help to the teachers. No one is going to continue hostility to anything that proves of value to him, and if it can't be made valuable it would just as well be abandoned or deferred to one's successor, who ought not to be far down the road.

A third obstacle and the one most frequently stated is the lack of time. It is true that the observation of classes consumes a great deal of time, more than is usually realized if it is preceded by preparation and followed by reflection that leads to supervisory planning. But how can supervision be made effective without definite knowledge of the educational procedures of the school? And how can this knowledge be got with confidence except by means of direct observation? The obstacle will in some way be overcome by a principal who has a keen sense of his responsibility for professional leadership and of the relative values of all of the things that he is called on to do. Inasmuch as one is likely to find time for what he can do well, a principal will continually find lack of time an obstacle unless he is confident not only of the importance of the observation of classroom procedures but also of his competence to carry it on skillfully. Some supervision can be delegated to heads of departments, but the principal should never forget that he has the ultimate responsibility and that he should do some of it himself besides directing his assistants to coördinate their activities.

**IV. Types of Observational Visits.**—The worst type of observational visit is casual, unplanned, purposeless, and without



results. The better kinds will of course always be planned as a part of the comprehensive supervisory program and will seek one or more of such purposes as have been presented. They will not be confused with the brief visit to classrooms for inspection, for social greeting, or for aid in discipline. The supervisory visits will be primarily concerned with preparation for the improvement of teaching.

*Planned and scheduled.* At or near the beginning of the year the supervising principal will need to learn as much as he can about the abilities of the new teachers, but the very fact that they are inexperienced, at least in this school, is likely to make them alarmed and unnatural if their superior officer observes their teaching without previously giving them some understanding of what his purposes are. He may present to the teachers in a group meeting some of the purposes of observational visits; he may arrange for some of the older teachers to tell the new ones of the advantages of the principal's being directly informed of the work of the school; or he may precede the first visit to an inexperienced teacher by an informal conference at which some program for coöperative work is initiated. It is wise to allay suspicion in such ways or to decrease the teacher's natural embarrassment as much as possible by asking a fortnight or so after school begins when it will be most convenient for him to have the principal observe.

The principal will also wish early in the year to ascertain how well the weaker teachers are attempting to improve their work, especially along the lines agreed on in previous supervision. But if he makes a point of observing only them he advertises their weakness, just as the doctor's car in front of a house tells all the neighbors that someone is ill. It is not good policy unduly to alarm the patient. In order that the principal may visit the weak teachers, he must visit the good ones as well. If he has accepted supervision primarily as a constructive rather than as a remedial procedure, he will realize the need of observing the work of all teachers anyway, first because he is responsible for developing a unified program for the whole school, and second because the greatest possibilities of success are in the promotion of growth in those who have the most talents.

At the beginning of each school year, then, a principal should plan for a series of observational visits to all the teachers of the



school, keeping constantly in mind the purposes in terms of the whole supervisory program. These first visits should as a rule be arranged for beforehand, the teacher being permitted to indicate a period when he thinks he and his pupils can show to the best advantage. What the principal primarily wants to ascertain is the highest standard that the teacher has, a standard which he can reasonably be expected to maintain and from which growth can begin. After the first round of observations to get clearly in mind what the several teachers are doing he will be in a position to make the program more definite, having located the especially promising challenges. He may decide then whether his subsequent observational visits will be to teachers of a certain subject, to those of a certain group of pupils, or to those having special needs or revealing unusual possibilities of growth. Whatever the decision, the principal will plan for the entire year or semester so as to insure that his program does not neglect any teacher, however good or however poor, and that it has a certain unity and comprehensiveness of purpose.

It has been argued that the principal should make and circulate among the teachers a schedule of observations. This has the advantage of preventing a certain tenseness among teachers who may be emotionally disturbed by unexpected visits from a superior officer, and also the advantage of helping the principal stick to the job; but it has disadvantages too. Some teachers are more emotionally disturbed by anticipation of a scheduled visit than they would be if the principal dropped in unexpectedly. After the teachers have realized the necessity of observational visits and have been convinced by subsequent supervision of their values, the attitude of suspicion and the nervousness resulting from fear will vanish. When the teachers and the supervisor understand each other and accept the responsibility for coöperative effort looking to greater success and further growth, visits can be made at any time without embarrassment.

One disadvantage of a schedule for observation, especially if it is published, is its rigidity. It may prevent a teacher with a special or an urgent need from getting help at the most propitious time, and it makes difficult modification as it seems wise to emphasize some phases of the program that manifest unexpected importance. Another disadvantage is that it emphasizes



the authority and the importance of the principal, implying that the responsibility for the program of growth is his alone. The ultimate responsibility is his, of course, but the program is not likely to be most successful unless each teacher comes to feel a share in it, especially as it concerns his own growth both in individual effectiveness and in coöperation with others for the unified progress of the school. It seems wise that the principal should make for himself a tentative plan for observational visits in order to insure a proper coverage of all the work of the school and attention to what seems at the time relatively of most importance, but that he should modify it freely as unexpected needs or unanticipated possibilities reveal themselves. The schedule is primarily of value to the principal rather than to the teachers.

*Visits on call.* In a few schools observational visits have been largely limited to those requested by teachers who feel the need of help or who have something that they think especially meritorious to exhibit. This policy certainly does away with the element of surprise and it serves to focus attention on a felt need, which from a more comprehensive point of view may or may not be relatively of great importance. The visit of the principal at the invitation of a teacher should certainly be provided for; as a matter of fact no such invitation should be neglected if it possibly can be accepted. But it should not be the only type used. Some teachers will be inclined to monopolize the principal's time and energies, calling on him frequently because of consciousness of need, perhaps a result of high ideals, or because of an inordinate desire for recognition and praise. Others who have an equal right to the principal's attention and need of it will call on him seldom or not at all. Among these will be those who are lazy, who are not keenly aware of needs, or who are fearful of revealing weaknesses, still thinking of the principal chiefly as one who rates them for promotion or discharge. And among these also will be those who have the most possibilities of growth, but who need recognition, stimulation, and direction. This important group should never be neglected, even though their teaching is considered the best in the school, for it is through their growth that the greatest results are obtained and that standards are set for all the rest of the staff.

No one type of observational visit should be used exclusively.



The needs and purposes which are important at any time should determine whether the visits should be by invitation or at the discretion of the principal. They should be planned for a considerable period of time to insure that they contribute maximally to the general program of supervision and that they involve all the teachers of the staff, but the plan should be flexible enough to be modified for any emergent need or possibility. What is essential is that visits be planned with definite purposes and that they be the basis for subsequent work looking to the improvement of instruction. Of these purposes the teachers should be conscious and convinced of their value, and in the subsequent work they should share because of their concern for their own individual growth leading to the betterment of the school.

**V. Preparation.**—Like every other important supervisory activity the observation of classroom procedures needs careful preparation. The principal who “drops in” will doubtless learn something regarding a teacher and the pupils, but he can rapidly and steadily increase his ability to understand and to interpret what he sees if he prepares in such ways as are easily possible. His own growth should be just as much his concern as that of the teachers under his direction.

It is assumed that the principal has made known to the teachers the general purposes of supervisory visits, either by previous experiences or by a brief statement in a group meeting. Such a statement should not be unduly elaborated or repeated, however, for teachers become suspicious of one who emphasizes intentions rather than demonstrates powers. After the program gets under way, no statement of purposes is of much value, for the teachers will judge by what the supervisor does at and after the observation. The early observations may well be made on invitation of the teachers or at least after ascertaining which classes they prefer to have visited, for the principal is seeking primarily to learn what they do best and what they can be helped to do better. *Noblesse oblige*. The first observations are exploratory in nature, but gradually the later ones are planned in relation to the general supervisory program. From that and especially from what has been discussed and agreed on in the group meetings the principal will plan precisely what he is visiting a class to learn and he will have in mind a general outline of what he intends to do with the information that he requires.



This does not mean that he will be blind to other matters, some of them urgent enough to demand immediate attention, but most of them to be noted and deferred until they can be appropriately attended to. If the observation is for general information, the principal will do well, in order to escape falling into a rut, from time to time to consult check lists so that some items of importance will not be neglected. But the whole supervisory program will as a rule determine the items on which he should focus his attention.

After deciding on the purpose of a proposed observation the principal will do well to review the notes that he has previously made and filed about the teacher. He will want to have in mind the teacher's general professional and personal characteristics, the activities that he performs best, his weaknesses, what was suggested and agreed on in individual conferences, and the like. It is wise also to recall criticism on the teacher's work made by the superintendent, special supervisors, pupils, and parents, or, in the case of new teachers, what was said of them in letters of recommendation and what they said of themselves in their own application blanks. The principal should be cautious, however, to consider such items merely as suggestive of what he should look for and evaluate, not as necessarily true simply because someone else has stated them. In planning for the observation the principal will do well, too, to recall requests that the teacher has made for help so that he may ascertain if development has made it no longer necessary in that particular respect. And he cannot neglect to recall and consider the teacher's personal characteristics, temporary as well as permanent, including his attitude toward supervision and the supervisor.

Having decided on the special purpose of the proposed observation and having recalled all pertinent information which he has regarding the teacher, the principal should review the theories that are likely to apply. Probably he has these already clearly in mind, but it often is helpful to think them over and to decide which ones especially, in light of the general program of supervision, should be applicable. These have probably already been stressed in group meetings and in individual conferences.

It is well before visiting a class for a principal to have much information about the pupils. Buckingham has suggested



that each teacher should furnish for every class and keep up to date a seating chart on which is recorded by each pupil's name his intelligence quotient. The general ability of a class and the diversity of its members are often important when one is attempting to understand a teacher's plan and activities and the pupil's responses to them.

Sometimes the teacher may well be prepared for the observational visit by being given beforehand definite information as to what the supervisor especially wishes to see. This may be communicated by a letter, which has the advantage of definiteness, that can be used by the teacher in planning the special details that are to be emphasized; but as a rule the principal would better explain orally his interest and ask when it will be convenient for him to see a class that will give what he wants. Often before visiting a class he can learn from the teacher or from examination of the plan book, if one is kept, much that will make the recitation more intelligible to him.

On entering the class the principal will as quickly as possible acquaint himself with what is going on. This he can do usually by listening to pupils and the teacher, but it is entirely proper for him to ask some pupil who is sitting near to tell the assignment and the purpose of the recitation unit, especially in relation to the larger unit of the course to which it is contributory. Many teachers consider it a part of the training in good manners which every boy and girl should have that someone in the class shall be responsible voluntarily for orienting every visitor who comes into the room.

**VI. Good Manners.**—Any visitor to a school class, whatever his purposes or his authority, should never for one instant forget that in the classroom the teacher should be considered a host. If anything that the visitor says or does disturbs the host's poise or materially interrupts his plans, it may weaken his prestige for some time to come. A teacher must have the respect of his pupils and he must retain his own self-respect and confidence if his work is to be most effective. A purpose of the observational visit is to ascertain in what respects a teacher may be helped toward greater respectability. If for any reason the visitor's mood is not right and cannot be made right, if he feels himself critical and unsympathetic with the teacher, he would do well to defer the proposed visit to a more propitious time.



Under such conditions he is not likely to observe accurately, to interpret wisely, or to supervise considerately.

*Entering the classroom.* For some teachers, especially some who are nervous by temperament or who are suspicious of their own competence, a principal's entrance into the classroom is a disturbing shock. This shock will be lessened if the visit is arranged for beforehand, as previously suggested, or if the principal enters while the pupils are changing classes and assures himself that no unusual conditions prevail that would make a visit at that time inadvisable. If the teacher makes excuses, whether or not they seem altogether valid, or if he manifests a state of mind or an attitude that does not promise a normal performance, the principal may well propose that the visit be postponed. Such consideration will pay dividends later, and the teacher will more easily believe that the purpose of the visit is to learn the directions in which he may best be helped to grow.

If the principal comes into the room after the class has begun, he should disrupt the work as little as possible. A pleasant nod to the teacher and then the maximum of inconspicuousness, at least until rapport has been established. The practice in at least one large city of greeting the class with a "Good morning, girls and boys," to which the pupils rising reply in unison, "Good morning, Mr.——," cannot be too strongly condemned. The training in superficial good manners is far more than overbalanced by the disturbance, the emphasized consciousness by both teacher and pupils of the official's presence, and the difficulty of returning to normal conditions for resuming work. The ideal is that the principal should be invisible and that the class should continue its activities precisely as if he were not present. The visitor should quietly take a seat where he can observe what goes on, a seat preferably in the rear of the room on the side next to the windows, certainly not behind the teacher's desk, where he is inevitably a center of attention to the pupils and a cause of wonder to the teacher as to what he may see of notes or other things that properly may have been left there. As previously suggested, the principal may ascertain from some pupil what the work in hand is, and then he observes, for the most part quietly and without comment. He should manifest interest and never boredom or any disapproval, however much he may feel of either. An appreciative attitude will encourage



both teacher and pupils to be normal and to do their best, and that is what he wants to see.

*Observing.* The principal should have a specific purpose for each observational visit, and this he should keep constantly in mind, not permitting general interest in the procedures to divert his attention more than momentarily. Of course other matters of importance will be observed and noted for use in supervision at the proper time, but the one purpose which he has come to see he should keep in mind all the time. As he observes he should seek to interpret. It is much easier simply to follow a recitation with general interest than it is to look for specific contributions to the dominant purpose of the visit, always interpreting the details of procedure in light of the facts already known about the teacher and the pupils and also in light of the fundamental principles of good teaching, which have already been emphasized in the group meeting or will soon be discussed there. The observer should be alert and thoughtful all of the time.

The question of whether the supervisor should take notes has been many times discussed pro and con, but the argument is mostly one-sided. He certainly should. There are occasions, especially on a first visit to the class of a nervous teacher who has not yet learned that the dominant purpose is to prepare for constructive help, when the writing of notes, however covertly, may prove disturbing; but even this situation may be prepared for and ameliorated by statements made either in the group meeting or to the teacher individually. If it should seem advisable to record no notes during the first visit, the principal should write them up immediately after leaving the room, while his memory is still fresh and more accurate than it will be later. But if note-taking is begun at once and continuously carried on, any embarrassment that it may cause will soon wear itself out; very shortly neither teacher nor pupils will pay any attention to what the quiet, observant, and manifestly interested visitor is doing. The surest cause of an approving attitude of the teacher to written notes is the helpfulness with which they are used later. They should record accurately and with a reasonable amount of fullness just what goes on in the class, with a memorandum of the time given to each activity. Exact direct quotations are helpful. Then when the principal studies his notes



and later when he holds a supervisory conference he has an accurate record not disturbed by wishful thinking or by any other cause. Such notes prove quite as helpful to the teacher as to the principal, and when this is realized, after constructive conferences have been held, the teacher will not only not be embarrassed by notes written in class, but he will even urge that they be taken.

After the written record has been studied by the principal and used in a conference, it should be filed in the accumulating dossier of the teacher. This folder will find many uses, especially in those conferences when the teacher is led to a realization of his own growth and is helped to plan for developing manifest strengths and later for overcoming the weaknesses that materially interfere with his fullest effectiveness. Copies of those parts of the record that give illustrations of peculiarly good practices, especially if they are unique, should also be filed under appropriate heads, such as "Assignments," "Thought Questions," "Concrete Illustrations," "Drill Devices," and the like. Thus the principal will accumulate an invaluable store of illustrations, from which he can draw at need. It is always helpful to emphasize a principle of good teaching or any other abstract theory with numerous concrete illustrations. They serve not merely to make the abstraction clear and evidently possible of application, but also as a challenge for others to do as well, if not better.

*Participation.* The general practice of principals is not to make any oral contribution to a recitation during an observational visit, but there are some who apparently feel that they have not done their duty unless they interrupt frequently. These are probably the supervisors who do not appreciate the chief purposes of observations or the opportunities that they have by means of later conferences. There are occasions, of course, when the visitor has some contribution so valuable at the time that he should not hesitate to make it, and when the proper relations between him and the class have been established he may thus do more good than harm, but such occasions are infrequent. Before participating in the recitation the principal should ask himself if what he has to say is highly valuable, much more important than what the pupils are getting, if its value would be greatly lessened by later consideration, if it would not



be better to make the contribution later to the teacher, who can use it at his discretion in some subsequent meeting of this or another class, and if the interruption will impair the prestige of the teacher or make it more difficult for him to resume the plan that he had prepared. Relatively few contributions by the principal can pass all of these criteria. But obviously there are some which instead of diverting the development of the lesson or impairing the prestige of the teacher stimulate by challenging questions or clarify by concrete illustrations.

Emphasis has properly been laid above on the constructive interruptions. There are also those that are remedial in intent. Are the pupils being seriously harmed by what they are learning? Seldom; and if so, the correction can as a rule be made later by the teacher himself on the basis of information privately given. Is the teacher seriously in need of help at the moment? Again seldom; almost no teaching need is so important that assistance cannot be deferred a few hours. The help that can be given by interrupting the class is usually a bit of patchwork that is not likely to have general or lasting effect. Moreover, the teacher will probably be upset by attention focused on some one point in his own procedure rather than on the learning by the pupils. It may be said that seldom or never should the principal interrupt a class to give to the teacher remedial help. There are many later opportunities that are more efficacious without bad effects.

If it seems wise to contribute to the recitation a few questions or a pertinent illustration, the principal should ask permission of the teacher, thus recognizing that he is in responsible charge. A considered contribution should be evaluated in terms of the probable effect on the teacher and of his attitude toward later visits. If invited by the teacher to contribute, the principal should do so briefly and only when he has something really worth saying. It is seldom wise for the principal to take over the class for a demonstration of good teaching or for any other purpose. If he does so, he should leave immediately at the end of his activity so as not to embarrass the teacher further. Any demonstration teaching by the principal should be arranged for beforehand and preferably should consume the entire class period.

*Length of visit.* Objective studies report that principals' visits for observation vary greatly in length and that the



average is for less than a half-period. Of the teachers who were asked what determined the length of the principal's visits to their classes, more gave "interest" than any other reason.

How long a principal should remain for an observational visit should be determined, of course, primarily by the purpose for which it is made, and secondarily by what he is getting that will enable him to achieve that purpose. If he is studying assignments, obviously he will want to observe the work out of which the assignment grows, the assignment itself, and the consequent activities. If he is concerned with questioning, he will be chiefly interested to be present when questions are asked by teacher and by pupils. If he wishes to see the general work of the teacher, he will be present throughout an entire recitation unit, whether that be ten minutes or three periods in length. Recitation units are much more important than class periods anyway, and they should always be considered in relation to the larger unit of which they are a part.

As a rule it is wise for an observer to be present throughout an entire class period, returning for at least a part of the next recitation, if necessary, to see the end of the unit. It is sometimes economical to remain with one teacher two consecutive half-periods if a good general picture of his work is desired, for thus one can observe more variety than in work for one period with a single class. Many observers think that by frequent samplings of short parts of a period they can learn to know a teacher, his possibilities, and his needs. To an extent this is true, especially when the visits are for the purpose of rating; but one should be on his guard lest the short periods be considered representative when they really may not be, and he should know that seldom does such a unit have much meaning or significance when taken out of its setting. It should be seen in relation to what precedes and to what follows. A principal may find a type of recitation—a test, the writing of a report, or directed study—going on and decide that it is not worth his while to observe all of it. That frequently is a mistake, for what a teacher does or fails to do during such activity by the pupils is often highly significant. The best advice regarding the length of a visit for observation is that the principal should remain in the classroom long enough to achieve the purpose for which he came, and he should be sure that his information is reasonably



complete before he is willing to leave. If he anticipates that a part of the period will be sufficient, it is usually wise to tell the teacher beforehand why he expects to leave early. If a good reason for leaving develops as he observes, he should explain briefly as he leaves or shortly thereafter so as to avoid embarrassment through the teacher's uncertainty or suspicion that the early termination of the visit is an implied criticism.

If the teacher is obviously too embarrassed by the principal's presence to proceed normally, the visit may be terminated briefly with some good excuse and another paid later after better preparation of the teacher can be made. Such preparation can be effected in various ways: the purposes of observation can be more fully explained; a visit can be arranged to carry on the supervision begun in an individual conference; a coöperative project can be initiated so that the principal's presence in the classroom is natural and desired; or the principal can go with the fearful teacher to observe another more experienced one at work. After such a joint visit the principal can so comment on the merits of the work observed, indicating how the teacher can be or has been helped to grow into greater effectiveness, that the less experienced teacher will lose his fear of being observed and directed to growth of his own.

*Leaving the room.* If the principal leaves any recitation before it is over, he usually needs only nod pleasantly to the teacher and slip out as quietly as possible. An explanation should be made later at the earliest convenient moment. If he remains to the end of the period, he will wisely say something commendatory in a sentence or two, but he will avoid everything that may seem critically condemnatory and he will not at that time be drawn into a conference. For this he needs time for reflective preparation. Occasionally a commendatory word may be said to the class, but if this is done frequently it must be done invariably, for neglect will be construed as implied criticism.

The practice of leaving with the teacher a written summary of the observation and critical suggestions is strongly condemned. In the first place, the principal cannot do the best job without more time for thought. The opportunity for help is too great to be used for any suggestions that are not as good as can be made. In the second place, an oral conference, in which the



teacher may explain, justify his procedures, and ask questions is immeasurably better for effective results. And, finally, any written summary with criticism will so dominate the teacher's attention that he will give only a divided interest to the classes immediately following. As a matter of fact, the teacher is not likely either sympathetically to understand or to accept the suggestions or to return to normal until the conference is held. Because it is similarly, though less, disturbing, the principal should not on leaving the room make an appointment, by leaving a note on the teacher's desk or otherwise, for a conference.

*Afterward.* Teachers should be informed that they are not to expect a conference immediately after every observation. If they know the purposes for which observations are made, they will understand the reasons. But if a conference is to be held, it should not be long delayed; interest wanes and memory becomes uncertain. Before the observation is discussed with the teacher the principal should exercise the greatest care neither to say nor to do anything that may be interpreted as hostile criticism. When that is reported to the teacher, as it inevitably will be, it effectively prevents a profitable conference and also has disastrous effects on later observations and on other attempts to be of supervisory aid. On the other hand, it is seldom out of place to praise to others what has been observed that merits sincere and discriminating commendation. When that is reported, the effects are good.

One observational visit is usually made more significant and valuable when the principal returns for another shortly afterward. As a matter of fact, many visits should be regarded as incomplete unless the principal returns at the next meeting of the class to see the continuance of the unit. An assignment can have little meaning unless one observes what the pupils do as a result of it. Similarly directed study can be evaluated only in terms of how the pupils learn. Several observations close together are usually better than the same number spaced over a longer time. But after a supervisory conference has been held with a teacher, at least several days should intervene before another observation is made, for he should be given time to assimilate the suggestions made and to translate them into practice.



**VII. What to Observe.**—When an inexperienced and unprepared person enters a museum he is usually bewildered by the possibilities before him. He can get a general impression of the pictures or the specimens that are displayed, but significant and economic learning is possible only if he knows what he should look for and how to interpret and evaluate what he sees. It is so with an observer of a recitation. No principal who appreciates the importance of supervision and the opportunity that observation affords for planning it effectively will go into a classroom “merely to look on and see what the teacher and pupils are doing.” Instead, he will prepare carefully to learn specific things that are important in his general supervisory program. What will loom large in one observation he will subordinate or neglect in another because at the time he is attempting improvement in some matter to which the detail is not especially contributory. In this discussion of what to observe for learning to improve instruction all the physical matters—like the temperature and lighting of the room and the neatness of the desks—are neglected, although they may be of some importance as facilitating teaching and learning.

Many lists have been prepared of the details that should be observed, but a study of them reveals that for the most part the items are too numerous, that they vary greatly in their significance for improving instruction, and that apparently being made without reference to an agreed philosophy of teaching and learning they have little unanimity of approval. For example, Barr lists <sup>1</sup> 131 different items that were proposed by 106 supervisors, but 72 of them were mentioned only once, and the most popular, “Pupils’ interest in subject” was mentioned by only 30 (28.3 per cent) of all the supervisors. The 20 most popular items had mention by an average of only 11.56 per cent. Kyte reports <sup>2</sup> from a study of 25 teacher-rating devices that the 22 most popular items are mentioned in from only 19 to 10 of them. A maximum agreement of 76 per cent does not give one great confidence in any of the lists. No principal should have any temerity in preparing for himself a list of the items that seem to him important to observe because they contribute in direct ways to the supervisory program that

<sup>1</sup> A. S. Barr, “An Evaluation of Items to Observe in Classroom Supervision,” *Journal of Educational Research*, 18:53–65, June, 1928.

<sup>2</sup> George C. Kyte, *How to Supervise*, p. 151.



he is using. From this list he will select for each observation the items that are at the time pertinent to what has been planned and to what probably has been discussed in the teachers meetings, and during observation he will never forget to pay special attention to what is important at the time. Nor will he allow himself to be confused about relative values; a careless blackboard should not obscure brilliant exposition, and an unimportant mannerism should not blind him to some significant possibility for growth to unusual effectiveness. Constant references to the basic principles of education will keep one sane with reference to relative values.

Buckingham has called attention <sup>1</sup> to the fact that items to be observed are both objective and subjective. Some of the former that may be obtained during a series of visits he lists and classifies as follows:

- I. Matters that may be expressed by time:
  - A. The time required
    - 1. Before work begins
    - 2. In passing materials
    - 3. In non-productive, though perhaps necessary ways, such as passing to the board
    - 4. In trying to get one pupil to understand
    - 5. In review of the previous work
    - 6. In discussing today's topic
  - B. Division of time between teacher and pupils
- II. Matters that may be counted:
  - A. The number of pupils who participated (code for each)
    - 1. By answering questions:
      - (a) When called upon
      - (b) Voluntarily
    - 2. By doing something:
      - (a) When called upon
      - (b) Voluntarily
    - 3. By asking a question
    - 4. By helping another pupil
    - 5. By contributing a statement
    - 6. By paying attention (at stated intervals)
  - B. The number of participants above and below the average intelligence quotient
  - C. The number of responses correct or satisfactory

<sup>1</sup> B. R. Buckingham, "Visiting the Classroom," *Educational Research Bulletin*, Ohio State University, May, 1929.



- D. The number of responses incorrect or unsatisfactory
  - E. The number of incorrect responses accepted without challenge.
  - F. The number of questions asked by the teacher
    - 1. The number of leading questions
    - 2. The number of "yes" or "no" or other alternative questions
    - 3. The number of factual questions
    - 4. The number of questions requiring thought
  - G. The number of times the teacher repeated an answer
  - H. The number of certain type errors of speech (might have a check list for each grade)
- III. Presence or absence of:
- A. Plan book, if required
  - B. Statement of aim or point
  - C. Summary
  - D. Serious digression or wandering
  - E. Serious interruption
  - F. Adherence to schedule
  - G. An assignment
  - H. A filing system
- IV. Quotation:
- A. Of forms of expression technical to the subject
  - B. Of good questions—and of bad
  - C. Of materials when practicable
- V. Other objective facts:
- A. Textbook, name of, and page references
  - B. Additional readings, if any
  - C. Material other than reading or apparatus used
  - D. Sample papers, for example (perhaps ten chosen at random)
    - 1. Home work
    - 2. Done in class
  - E. Concentrating attention on one pupil

Such a list, which may without difficulty be modified or extended, indicates what may be measured or counted, but it gives no indication of relative values. It is of no importance to get as accurate data as possible on all of the details mentioned unless they are made to contribute significantly to the real program of constructive supervision. During the past few years too many students of education have erroneously thought that there is value in counting or measuring without either doing anything with the figures or even intending to do anything with them.



If a supervisor is attempting to lead teachers to the improvement of their questioning, he may well record the number, the kinds, and the distribution of the questions asked; but he cannot stop with that. He will need to show the significance of his observations and to use the facts as a basis for building a program of better procedures.

As Buckingham states in the continuance of his article, "subjective impressions are often more important than objective information." The context of an activity observed determines its value; no fact is likely to have even meaning in isolation. Although subjective judgments are somewhat lacking in reliability, there being no certainty that the same observer would come to the same conclusions on another visit to the same teacher doing precisely the same work, this fact should not be unduly disturbing. So far no means have been devised for either observing accurately or evaluating important activities by objective methods, the best of which are themselves lacking in reliability. The supervisor, then, is forced to use subjective judgments and to justify them to the teacher by recalling the situation in which they were made and the principles that led to evaluation and constructive suggestions for improvement.

As said before, the supervisor should have one or more definite purposes when observing a class. For every visit, with the possible exception of one made for the purpose of getting a general impression of a teacher's work and for ascertaining the phases of it that invite assistance with most promise of effective results, the supervisor will be looking for those details that help him to promote, or to modify for promotion, the program that he has already laid out and begun. When he attempts to observe everything with equal attention, he is likely to forget relative values and subsequently to neglect the chief purposes of his program. He should realize in the beginning and never forget that he will make more certain and more rapid progress by attempting one thing at a time, and that that thing should be as highly contributory as possible to the main purposes that he has in mind at the time. Following is given a list of questions that may be helpful to the supervisor planning an observational visit. Only a few of them, and those closely related, is he likely to find it profitable to emphasize during one visit and in a subsequent conference.



## SOME QUESTIONS TO ASK WHEN OBSERVING A CLASS

1. What is the teacher's purpose? To what extent is it worthy? definite? specific with regard to this class? attainable?
2. To what extent did the pupils share in proposing the purpose? To what extent do they comprehend, approve, and adopt as their own the purpose proposed by the teacher?
3. What is the appropriateness of the type of recitation units used to achieve the purpose?
4. How suitable is the plan that the teacher has prepared and manifests by use for achieving the desired objectives?
5. Is the preparation by the teacher adequate?
6. What assignment has been made? To what extent does it conform to the criteria for good assignments? How effective is it when judged by the responses of the pupils?
7. What study was expected of the pupils? What direction was given to make it effective? What apparently did the pupils actually do in preparation for this recitation? What better could they have done?
8. What is the atmosphere of the classroom and what is the morale of the pupils as evidenced by their attitude toward the assignment, the teacher, each other, and the work that they do?
9. What is the behavior of the pupils in respect to good manners, respect for every individual and his contribution, consideration for weaknesses, and openminded receptivity?
10. What concomitant learnings of wide educational importance does the teacher encourage and direct?
11. Are abundant and rich materials prepared by teacher or by pupils ready for use?
12. To what extent does the teacher, by recall of what has already been learned and by giving a meaning to the new material by showing its relations to a large significant problem, create a readiness in the pupils?
13. To what extent is the presentation of the new material adequate and clarified by obvious order, by illustrations, by relation to pupils' past experiences, and by application to pupils' needs, immediate or realized as probable in the future?
14. What provisions are made for individual differences in interest, probable needs, special aptitudes, and ability? Does the teacher distribute his efforts equally among the pupils? Does he insure that every pupil is successful in something?
15. What participation in the recitation is there by the pupils? Do they manifest intelligent interest, the spirit of inquiry, open-mindedness, initiative, enthusiastic persistence, the ability to



- judge their own work, and satisfaction with nothing less than mastery in terms of the accepted purpose of the lesson?
16. What are the teacher's responses to the proposals and activities of the pupils? Is he receptive, considerate, fair, tactful, and able to give them fruitful direction?
  17. To what extent are the pupils being trained to work both independently as individuals and coöperatively with others?
  18. How ready is the teacher to modify his plan so as to seize opportunities as they are manifested and how resourceful is he to make the new plan effective?
  19. What are the values of the questions asked by teacher and by pupils? What are the nature and the significance of the responses made to them?
  20. Are the laws of learning used properly and to their maximum extent?
  21. What effort is made to secure the application of former learning and the strengthening in a new situation of good habits?
  22. What is the nature of the summaries and reviews and drills? Are they meaningful to the pupils, adapted to the needs of the individuals, varied and spaced enough to be interesting, and effective?
  23. If tests are used, are they valid in terms of the purposes sought, significant to the pupils, and reliable in form? What is indicated for further teaching by the results?
  24. What provision is made after the new learning for its being incorporated into larger and more meaningful units? What opportunities for its application are indicated?
  25. What revelation by the teacher is made of the direction for further growth that is indicated by what has just been learned? To what extent is this revelation made stimulating of a desire to grow?
  26. Wherein are the pupils better for the learning experience that they have just had?
  27. What is outstanding in promise in the work of the teacher observed?
  28. What immediate and what ultimate help does he need to strengthen his weaknesses so that his strengths may be increasingly effective?
  29. What economies in the physical conduct of the period are desirable?
  30. How is the recitation contributory to the general purposes of education and to the special functions of the secondary school?



**VIII. Devices to Aid Observation.**—Much ingenuity has been manifested in the invention of devices to facilitate the recording of what has been more or less objectively observed. The qualification “more or less” is used because of the fact that a certain amount of subjective judgment must be used when many items, such as the number of pupils who are attentive, are noted. Although such devices are for the most part designed for use in elementary schools, there are a number that are intended for secondary school supervision or that can be adapted for its uses. They all are for the purpose of focusing attention on certain details of procedure, by teacher or by pupils, and of making a record that is economical to make and permanent. These devices provide variously for an analysis of the time devoted to each step in the recitation, for a record of the percentage of pupils attentive at every minute, for registering the number of pupils’ questions and answers, with estimates of their worth, for memoranda of the teacher’s activities, and the like. As a matter of fact there is no reason why they cannot be adapted to recording any phase of classroom procedure. An extended list of data-gathering devices with critical comment can be found in Chapter V of A. S. Barr’s *An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Supervision*,<sup>1</sup> and reports of supplementary devices are listed in *The Educational Index*.<sup>2</sup> Using these as a basis any supervisor can make for himself a similar device for economically recording almost anything upon which he wishes to focus his attention.

*Time records.* The devices for recording the time devoted to various activities are the simplest of these proposed. They range from a sheet of paper, down the left-hand margin of which the minutes of the period are numbered and opposite which the observer can write a memorandum of what was said or done. In this there is hardly any advantage over making notes in a summary account of the recitation of the time at which significant steps were taken.<sup>3</sup> At the extreme of complexity is a chart on which a code record may be made of the activities of each pupil, who is represented by a square. Probably the best known of these, reported by R. C. Puckett,<sup>4</sup> provides for the number of times each pupil raised his hand, was called on

<sup>1</sup> D. Appleton and Co., 1931.

<sup>2</sup> The H. W. Wilson Co.

<sup>3</sup> See pages 342–345.

<sup>4</sup> “Making Supervision Objective,” *School Review*, 36:209–212, March, 1928.



by the teacher, made a response of several degrees of value, asked a question, etc. A similar chart devised somewhat earlier is by Dr. Raymond G. Drewry.

# DREWRY RECORD DEVICE

## KEY CARD

1. Number of pupils in the class
2. Number of pupils who participated and percentage
3. Number of questions answered by volunteers
4. Number of answers "drafted"
5. Total questions answered
6. Mean number of questions answered per pupil
7. Voluntary contributions—not called forth by a question
8. Total pupil responses
9. Largest number of responses by an individual pupil
10. Number of questions pupils asked

v  
a

Ⓥ

The  $\neg$  indicates continuity; x that the seat was not occupied.

### SAMPLE RECORD AND ANALYSIS CARD

Miss Tapp                      Biology 9 A                      Julia Richman High School

Room 207                      Date March 12, 1925

*Checking lists.* There are more or less extensive and organized lists of items that may be checked to indicate the degree to which they were satisfactory. One such list classifies the items under I. Classroom Management (28 items), and II. The Technique of Teaching (49 items), accompanying the sheet with an abbrevi-



ated statement of standards. The fact that these check lists vary greatly is an indication of how differently supervision and the elements of a successful teaching unit are conceived. Sometimes such a check list gives to the items weighted values which if all were perfect would total some arbitrary number, like 100. This is obviously bad, for an otherwise perfect lesson may be almost wholly invalidated by poor relations between teacher and pupils or a brilliant piece of introductory exposition may make a highly successful period even though not a question was asked and not a pupil made an oral contribution. Such check lists are virtually rating sheets and are very likely to be confused in use by both teacher and supervisor. If the check list is reasonably good, it may be wise occasionally to have a teacher rate himself by it.

The fact that neither time records nor checking lists have become popular in use indicates either that supervisors in secondary schools have felt no need for them or that they are not considered helpful. Certainly they have little use, and it is doubtful if they can be made sufficiently valuable to justify themselves. They vary much among themselves; studies have shown that several observers using the same device agree to a disturbingly small per cent on what they record; they either disperse attention over too large a number of items for a comprehensive understanding of the recitation to be possible or they limit the attention to a small number of items which in themselves may have little meaning; and frequently they are disturbing to the teacher observed. On the other hand, they may have certain advantages. They focus attention on what might otherwise be overlooked, they are economical for making records, and they furnish data for conferences with individuals or with groups more accurate than the memory is likely to retain. Unless the device is entirely mastered before being put to use, inevitable disappointment will follow. Whatever the record, it will need interpretation in light of the entire recitation and in terms of the principles of good teaching before it can be truly meaningful and of help in supervision, and many think that interpretation of an observation is best made, at least in part, at the time that the context is seen and can best be appreciated. Each supervisor must decide for himself the extent to which any proposed device is or can be made at least in part useful at



the time that the context is seen and can best be appreciated. He needs to avoid the Scylla of indefinite "impressions" and the Charybdis of unrelated and uninterpreted facts.

*Stenographic and abbreviated records.* Certainly a supervisor should have some record of his observations in order that his subsequent reflection and conferences may be based on something more trustworthy than memory. An ideal would seem to be a stenographic report of what goes on in a classroom, but there are obvious obstacles: it is usually difficult to get or to train a stenographer to record precisely what is wanted, it is expensive, and it needs to be supplemented with a record of tones of voice, of expressions of the face, and of what is done physically by both pupils and teacher. The objection that teachers are embarrassed by such elaborate note-taking is dismissed as having little weight, for as soon as they are convinced that the record will be used to forward their growth toward greater success they will be as hospitable as formerly they were fearful. A record made by a skilled stenographer and supplemented by the supervisor who takes general notes is as nearly an ideal as can now be achieved; but it is reported that there soon will be on the market a small simple machine that will unobtrusively record everything that both teacher and pupils say with a fidelity that will include even the tones of expression. Obviously such complete records are needed only occasionally.

When it is not feasible to have a stenographic record made of an observed recitation, the supervisor should devise some satisfactory shorthand method for his own use. There seems to be no merit in one form for everybody to use for all purposes. Notes taken to satisfy the purpose or purposes for which the observation is made will be all that is necessary. If the supervisor is focusing attention on classroom economies, obviously his notes will concern the time devoted to calling the roll, to getting under way, to passing papers and other materials, and the like, items that may be neglected entirely if he is attempting to develop in the teachers more worthy, definite, and specific purposes for each recitation unit, or if he is stimulating them to effect greater mastery and retention. Such notes as are taken should record the apparent purpose of the lesson, a general outline of the procedure followed, the points at which constructive help seems most needed, and the peculiar features



that are pertinent to the supervisory purpose in hand. Although some evaluations may be noted, final judgment should be suspended until there has been adequate time for reflection.

It cannot be too strongly emphasized that whatever record is made of an observation is of no value in itself. It merely furnishes the data that can be kept without change until a plan can be made for its use in a conference, in group meetings, or in some other form of supervision. What data are recorded give evidence regarding the supervisor no less than regarding the teacher. They indicate whether or not he has a supervisory program, and if so, what its nature is. The record fructifies in the way it is used to forward that program.

Although a stenographic or an abbreviated record of observed recitation may be given the teacher, one containing criticism or suggestions that imply criticism should come under the eyes of no one but the supervisor. To hand a complete critical estimate to the teacher violates common sense. In the first place, it implies that the supervisor is omniscient, that his observation has given him a complete understanding of the lesson, an approximation to which is possible only if the teacher shares with the observer the knowledge that he alone has of the pupils, of what has preceded, and of what is intended in the future. It suggests a finality of the supervisor's judgment that inhibits either his own growth or the growth by the teacher through coöperative planning and directed endeavor. And it suggests that the purpose of the observation has been to find faults and to prescribe the method of correction, rather than to discover strengths and coöperatively to plan for their growth and greater effectiveness. Any suggestions that a supervisor may have are better expressed orally after the teacher has interpreted what has been seen.

**IX. Using and Preserving Reports.**—Although no set pattern of a record for an observed lesson is advocated, each principal should develop a general type of record for his own use, varying it according to the purposes for which he visits the classes. A record is necessary for accuracy to supplement the general impression when the supervisor comes to reflect on the observation and to prepare for supervisory conferences or group meetings. Not only the outline of the lesson but the exactly quoted passages will often prove of invaluable help, especially in sup-



porting a suggestion made at the time of observation, with comments added later. These comments may be improved in their comprehensiveness and in their manifested relation to the supervisory program, but they are good at least in the expression of appreciation of strong points and in expressed intention of definite use. Anyone studying to improve his own powers of supervision may find it profitable to make his own comments on each recitation that is reported on the following pages.

## RECORDS OF RECITATIONS OBSERVED

### I

*American Government XII*

*C. J. Anderson*

*October 3, 1936*

19 boys; 23 girls

10:01. "If you were to vote in November, where should you cast your ballot?" . . . "To what laws should you have to conform to vote there?" . . . "Why are these laws reasonable?"

10:07. "Do you have any limit on the people for whom you might vote for the presidency? I mean, may you vote for anybody you choose—even for me?" . . . "As a matter of fact, no one votes directly for a certain man for president. For whom do we vote directly?" . . . "Does that seem a sensible and economic way of voting? Are you interested enough to find out the origin of the Electoral College?" Three pupils take special assignment. "When these reports are made, you will want to ask what conditions have changed that might make a new plan of electing a president better. Why don't we change?" . . .

10:13. "How are the few men who will be voted for in November selected out of the thousands who might make good presidents?" . . . "I don't mean how are the final nominations made, but how are the candidates for the nomination chosen? You've seen the process going on during the past months." . . .

10:19. Robert J. "How could a group of citizens work to get a good man whom they know into the running?" A heated discussion after Gertrude D's rejoinder, "We'd never have a chance. The politicians do it."

10:27. Teacher got from the class a summary of the discussion. He wrote on the board at their dictation and they rearranged the items thus:

A. Common methods of promoting nominations

1. General recognition of successful public service
2. Popularized emphasis on achievements, public or private



3. Appeals by public addresses, speeches over radio, articles in newspapers and magazines, interviews
4. Playing up the personality appeal: anecdotes, pictures, etc.
5. Newspaper support: editorials, pictures, selecting the right news for printing and for playing up, suppression of news, coloring the news, open letters from supporters, and reported interviews with prominent citizens
6. Gaining support of political organizations by
  - (a) Convincing the leaders
  - (b) Paying leaders
  - (c) Promising rewards to leaders

**B. Better methods of promoting nominations**

10:38. "There isn't time to fill in the items under B. I think it would be well to have several lists reported for our consideration. How do you want to divide up for these reports?" Groupings made and responsibilities determined.

10:41. Explanation of lesson in terms of large plan:

Purposes: To understand how presidents are nominated and elected. To be able to share as an active citizen should in the nomination and election, and

To feel a moving responsibility for action. (Last not stated to class, but told me privately.)

Background: Historical development of machinery, with consideration of original causes and of changed conditions.

How nominations are actually made, campaigns are conducted, and elections determined.

The Ideal: How nominations should be made.

How the campaign could be conducted so as to contribute better to the success of democracy.

How public pressure can modify the candidates' programs.

**A Mock Campaign and Election**

Conforming to legal practices but introducing as many ideals as possible.

**COMMENT:**

1. Mr. A. dominates the class, but he has good purposes, which he never forgets, and he shares both them and his excellent plan convincingly with the pupils. How preserve his energy and leadership and at the same time get him to develop more initiative and independence in the pupils?

2. Intelligent interest by the pupils, eagerness to participate in discussion, willingness to undertake assignments, even on historical background. Should more specific directions have been given?



3. Mr. A. is especially gifted in asking questions that are important, sequential, and stimulating. Encourage and help him to make them even better.

4. His plan is admirable in its comprehensiveness and in the obvious contribution of each part to the whole. Use him for exposition in teachers meeting.

## II

*Algebra IX, Section C*  
*April 24, 1936*

*Miss Lutz*  
23 boys, 24 girls

During the first fifteen minutes Miss Lutz went over the assignment of the previous day, eight graphs of linear equations, attempting to find the difficulties of the group and of individuals. Few of the former, many of the latter. The general difficulties were cleared up chiefly by Miss Lutz, who has excellent blackboard technique, and she gave instructions regarding choice of scales, position on paper, choice of numbers in preparing tables of values, etc. Then the pupils who admitted the general difficulties were sent to the board and given equations for which they were to prepare tables of values. Miss Lutz and three superior pupils helped at their seats those who had special difficulties. The assignment consisted of an explanation of the next step with ten illustrative problems to be worked at home.

### COMMENT:

1. No relation of the subject-matter to the general scheme of algebra. Graphing linear equations was an end in itself.

2. The lesson was well planned and efficiently administered, the pupils serious and earnest in their efforts. Would diagnostic tests be economical? Discuss construction of homemade ones.

3. What could Miss L. learn from the recitation about her previous assignment that would help her to improve the next one?

4. How does Miss L. get such earnest attention from pupils on an abstract topic?

5. What provisions can be devised for insuring a higher degree of mastery and longer retention?

## III

*Art X, Section A*  
*March 23, 1936*

*Miss Burns*  
20 boys, 26 girls

10:53. Class very informal, but out of the confusion, some pupils posting pictures and clippings on the bulletin board and others talking among themselves, Mary McM. began to tell of a doorway that she had seen in the Davis House on Elm Street. She was so full of enthusiasm that the rest of the class began to listen and to ask



questions. "What was its type? How wide were the panels? Were they proportionate to the door? Will you sketch the door on the blackboard?" etc. The artistic merits of the door were discussed, with a final agreement on the general criticisms. Three other doorways of a number reported were similarly reported, sketched, and criticized. Miss B. shared in the discussion, but didn't dominate it. She directed attention from time to time to the artistic principles to be kept in mind and to historical parallels or sources.

11:26. At Miss B's direction two boys used the lantern to project several pictures of historic doorways and they were similarly discussed.

11:34. "What is the typical doorway in our town?" . . . "How and by whom is it determined?" . . . "What do you think should determine what a doorway should be?" . . . "What type of house should you like to build to live in?" . . . "What should be the characteristics of the front doorway in your house? You won't have time to answer that question now, but let's agree on how we should set about answering it. What art principles should you keep in mind? Remember that you ought to get joy every time you look at that doorway, from the street all down the walk, and that you ought to thrill as with appreciative reverence you turn the knob and enter. You will get help by referring to the books that I have listed on the board. Will you bring in a sketch on Wednesday, big enough for all to see, and prepare to justify it."

COMMENT:

1. The class as a whole was actively interested in developing a topic which they appreciated as of value. How can John H., Lucy N., Lucile B., and Lloyd S. be reached?

2. I liked the repeated reference to art principles and their application. Pupils were learning more than doorways. What further application of these principles intended?

3. The assignment highly commendable. Have Miss B. analyze it for discussion in group meeting.

4. Have Mr. W. visit Miss B. to observe effective informality.

The practice of making and filing reports of observations is not general among secondary school principals, chiefly perhaps because supervision is not seriously accepted as a prime responsibility. But it has many important values. Besides furnishing a definite record that can be used in reflecting on the lesson and in subsequent conferences and other supervisory activities, which usually should be based on more than one observation,



it can be referred to when the principal is looking for concrete manifestations of good or of poor use of details of teaching, such as assignments, questioning, the use of concrete or verbal illustrations, drill, and the like. As previously suggested, the best of the examples should be indexed under appropriate titles. Also a series of records of observations will give evidence of growth or the lack of it, and thus will enable the principal to have a background when he prepares for a supervisory conference. Although supervision should be kept entirely separate in the minds of both the principal and the teachers from rating, there comes a time when that must receive attention. Rating is much more likely to be fair and justifiable when based on accumulated records made at the time of observation than on general impressions that often are inordinately modified by some single and unrepresentative incident.

The record of an observational visit, when considered alone, or better still, with other similar records of observations of the same teacher or of teachers of the same subject, furnish valuable material for a principal's study. Seldom will an observation yield at once all of the significance of the teaching and learning activities; it will need reflection that involves the history of the teacher's growth, the conditioning environment, and the principles that have been, or that will be, emphasized for the improvement of the educative process. The ability to suspend judgment until the activity has been thought through in its more important aspects is constantly to be sought. Every such reflection contributes to the supervisor's growth in competence for more effective work. It should prepare not only for the immediate steps that should be taken to help the teacher, but also for the continuous modification of the broad supervisory program. To aid himself to improve, the principal may well on occasion ask for an "experience meeting" of the teachers regarding observation.

If there are heads of departments, it is well for the principal to discuss with them before a conference with the teacher the observations made and the tentative conclusions reached. Besides getting a new point of view and new interpretations, the principal can similarly contribute to the department head. The extent to which the head can be stimulated and directed toward competence will extend the power of supervision, by whomever



it is done. Even though the heads of departments should increasingly take over responsibility for direct supervisory contacts with the teachers, the principal should never relinquish it entirely; he should still observe some recitations and hold some individual conferences. But his work and that by the heads should by planning be harmonious and coöperatively directed toward the same ends, usually at the same time.

### EXERCISES

1. Recall as accurately as you can a number of observational visits that you have made to classes and criticize them. How could you have made each one better?

2. Draw up a plan for observing the work of a teacher whom you know well. What background details should you consider? What definite purposes do you propose?

3. How can you plan best to overcome the obstacles to observing the work of a new teacher? of one long experienced in the school?

4. Which of the purposes stated on pages 310-316 are most important to seek in terms of the general supervisory program that you have prepared for the year?

5. Make a critical study of the questions proposed on pages 335-336 for the supervisor's guidance in observation. What principles of supervision seem to underline them? What modification do you think ought to be made to the list? Which questions should you plan to answer in a proposed observation of some selected teacher?

6. Compare one or more checking lists or rating sheets with the questions proposed on pages 335-336 to guide a supervisor in observing a recitation. What merits and demerits has each one?

7. Study the devices reported in Chapter V of Barr's *An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Classroom Supervision* or elsewhere for economically recording details that are observed. What merits have they for your purposes? Give the promising ones a trial after becoming thoroughly familiar with them. Which can you continue to use with profit? What modification of them can you make for your own needs?

8. Make a record of a recitation observed and set down in detail all of your criticisms, both negative and constructive. Be prepared to justify each one. Which will it be most profitable to use in later supervision of the teacher?

9. For practice prepare notes on the lessons reported on pages 342-345 and discuss them with someone else who has similarly prepared notes on the same reports.

10. Outline a pattern of study of notes made on observed recitations.

11. How should you plan to use your file of reports on observations?



12. Recall and evaluate some contributions that you have made or that you have known other supervisors to make to recitations.

13. Criticize the following reported interruptions. Why were they probably made? What probably were their effects?

- (a) I am ignorant in this field. Will you not state the facts so that I can understand them?
- (b) Please summarize the discussion for me up to this point.
- (c) Fine! That is an excellent answer.
- (d) Once when I was a boy——
- (e) Perhaps this illustration will make the matter clear.
- (f) Joan, you ought to think better than that.
- (g) May I have that again? I'd like to make a record of it.
- (h) Miss L., I'd like to take the class for a while.
- (i) Miss L., please come to my office after school for a conference.
- (j) Except for one thing that was a good piece of teaching.

14. For what purposes might you properly take another teacher with you for observation? What precautions should you take before and afterward to avoid bad results?

15. In what ways do you think you could most materially improve your own observational visits to teachers in order to make them more effective in your supervisory program?



## CHAPTER XIV

---

### SUPERVISORY CONFERENCES

---

**Conferences Supplement Teachers Meetings.**—The supervisory conference between the principal and an individual teacher is potentially the most important means for improving instruction. The teachers meeting has its peculiar contributions to make, especially in getting general principles and policies understood and accepted and in unifying the teaching corps; but just as mass-instruction in a class, it needs to be supplemented by individual conferences to insure that general principles and even specific suggestions are assimilated into each teacher's program for better teaching. Observational visits by the principal are necessary that he may know what is being attempted in classrooms and with what degree of success; but they are not likely to influence the teacher unless they are followed by constructive conferences.

These conferences with individual teachers are held by the supervisor, whether the principal, the superintendent, or a special officer. As argued previously, the principal in schools of any considerable size should have immediate responsibility, and no conferences with individual teachers should be held by others except as a part of a supervisory plan previously agreed on, and even then a report of what has been said by them by way of suggestion or criticism should be made to the principal so that he may keep the program unified and continuously active. As the assumption has been made that the principal is or strives to be competent as the educational leader of the school, it will be further assumed in the following discussion that it is he who holds supervisory conferences with individual teachers, but practically all of the recommendations are equally sound, whoever performs the supervision.

**Reported Practices.**—Such conferences are apparently far less frequent than their importance warrants. Trabue reports <sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> First Yearbook of the National Conference on Educational Method, pp. 122-132.



that Hampton found in a study of diaries kept by 130 principals for a total of 2516 days the percentage of time devoted to conferences with teachers on their work amounted to less than one per cent. The total average amount of time devoted by each principal daily to supervisory conferences was three minutes. This is a trivial part of the day, especially when it is noted that the principals reported that they spent on the average more than four hours each week observing recitations. Although these 130 principals were for the most part in elementary schools, there is no reason to assume that the record of secondary school principals would be materially better.

After a study in 426 schools Hughes reports <sup>1</sup> that in one semester principals visited the classes of only 39.2 per cent of their teachers, remaining on the average twelve minutes for each of the 5.8 visits to the teachers who were favored. They made written suggestions after only 2.4 per cent of the visits, and oral suggestions after one visit in seven. There were 90.2 per cent of the teachers whose classes these principals did not visit during an entire semester or for whom they made no suggestions either written or oral. Hughes and Melby report <sup>2</sup> somewhat more favorably on the practices of twenty principals in the Chicago area. Approximately 35 per cent of them held supervisory conferences after observing classwork, but only 2.6 per cent discussed with the teachers the activities observed. Thirty-nine of 75 teachers who reported the number of supervisory conferences during one semester said that they had had none.

These data are cited to indicate that so far as evidence is available the supervisory conference with individual teachers is used much less than its potentialities would seem to indicate that it should be. There is further evidence that when it is used it is not utilized as effectively as it might be to the constructive improvement of instruction. Shannon's study <sup>3</sup> of more than 1400 notes made by supervisors abundantly supports this statement. More than three out of four of these notes are faultfinding rather than appreciative of strength that could be further de-

<sup>1</sup> J. M. Hughes, "A Study of High School Supervision," *School Review*, 34:112-122, February, 1926.

<sup>2</sup> J. M. Hughes and E. O. Melby, *Supervision of Instruction in High School*, p. 41. Public School Publishing Co., 1930.

<sup>3</sup> J. R. Shannon, "An Analysis of High School Supervisory Notes," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 14:9-14, January, 1928.



veloped. The principal who is ambitious for professional growth will consider these data not as an excuse for attempting no more than others have done, but rather as a challenge to make himself significantly effective by using the supervisory conference to stimulate the growth of every teacher toward more skilled instruction.

A study of reports made by one hundred graduate students of education on their own experiences with supervisory conferences as teachers confirms the conclusions reached by others. Twenty had never been called to a supervisory conference of any kind; eight had attended only one in two years; forty-eight felt that they had received little or no real help from them. However, the results were probably somewhat better than the judgments of these teachers indicated. From a careful study of the reports one might say that of the 80 conferences held 24 were good, 20 were fair, and 36 were poor. This is a record that even the humblest beginner in supervision might reasonably aspire to surpass.

**Teachers' Attitudes.**—Considerable evidence has been presented in professional literature to show that teachers are not enthusiastic about such supervisory conferences as they have experienced. If such conferences in secondary schools are as uncommon as has been noted, it is not necessary to spend time in reproducing this evidence. What is important is that every principal shall appreciate the possibilities of his using the supervisory conference for developing teachers in service toward greater effectiveness and that he shall plan to incorporate it into his program of activities in such manner that the teachers will recognize its helpfulness. In order that he may do this, the principal should as a first step ascertain what are the difficulties that teachers are experiencing in their classroom work. As has been argued earlier, the removal or the lessening of difficulties is constructively of less importance than the building up of potential strengths, but it is certainly the contribution that is first in the desires of the great majority of teachers. They want help first on what they consider difficulties rather than on what someone else thinks are weaknesses in their teaching. Therefore supervisory conferences may well be initiated, especially where they have not previously been used, by discussions of the difficulties of which teachers are aware. Such discussions should



lead, of course, to a coöperative attempt to plan means for overcoming or at least for lessening them.

**I. Purposes of Conferences.**—The general purpose of supervisory conferences is to guide teachers to such self-directed growth that they become increasingly effective in their activities to improve the learning and conduct of their pupils. It can hardly be too much emphasized that the principal is not like a builder working from plans of his own so to manipulate inert material that it conforms to his desires. He should not wish to be considered a superior officer using his authority to order things done in a manner that he determines. Rather, he should go to the conference as a co-worker, primarily responsible for the success of the school, of course, and in many respects superior in his understanding of its objectives and the program for achieving them. His purpose will be so to share his knowledge and vision that each teacher will be eager to work with him coöperatively for effecting what is in common considered desirable. Any official can issue specific orders and see that they are followed, at least in form and temporarily; but real and continuous growth on the part of teachers is possible only if they recognize its need and are convinced of the wisdom of plans which they, appreciating both social and personal goals, have shared in making.

More specific purposes of the supervisory conference will be stated and briefly discussed.

1. *To know each teacher better as an individual and as an instructor.* Although this purpose is most important when either the teacher or the principal is new in the school, it should not be minimized even when there has been long association. To be an effective guide the principal must know each teacher—not only his permanent characteristics, but also those temporary ambitions and disturbances that indicate tendencies of various kinds to change. Although the principal is responsible only for the professional work of the teachers, it must be recognized that this is affected, sometimes profoundly, by problems and activities entirely personal in nature. It is not suggested that the principal constitute himself a director of the private lives of the teachers, prying into their outside affairs with offensive obtrusiveness; but he unquestionably should be concerned with anything that affects the work of the school and that seems



likely to stimulate or to hinder professional effectiveness and growth.

The individual conference furnishes the best possible opportunity for the principal to learn what is the professional attitude and the professional ambition of each teacher. It is easy for a teacher to get into a rut, to become discouraged over the small evidence of success after long-continued and conscientious work, to be skeptical of proposals and policies, especially when they are only in part understood, and to develop an individualistic attitude with a steadily lessening appreciation of responsibility as an integral part of a team all playing the same game. It is in the conference that a principal can detect the beginnings of these dangerous tendencies and can help a teacher to overcome them by recognition and by planning for some activity that insures obvious growth in the right direction. It is in the conference, too, that a principal can best learn of ambitions, often vaguely realized by the teacher himself, and can coöperate in developing plans for making dreams come true. The better a teacher is known, the clearer the challenge of the supervisor and the less vague and complicated his responsibility becomes. Consequently a not inconsiderable part of individual conferences may wisely be devoted to an attempt more thoroughly to discover what each teacher is and what each teacher hopes to be.

2. *To help teachers to know themselves better.* The Socratic advice to know oneself is still good, and it is a wise friend who can help one to know his own professional strengths and weaknesses. Far too much emphasis has been laid on the value of recognizing one's weaknesses. The dynamic people in this world are those who know their own peculiar strengths and have imagination enough to see how they can be used most effectively. It would be foolish, of course, to ignore those weaknesses that are constant and important hindrances to effectiveness; but the person who focuses his attention even on these is usually unhappy, and while trying, often futilely, to overcome them fails to utilize the gifts that might make him of significant worth to the world. The principal, then, who can help a teacher to recognize his peculiar strengths, however embryonic they may be, to find how they can be best applied, and to plan for their increase is following the course that will lead to the



most promising professional growth. What a school there might be if every teacher were using to his utmost his developed strengths! Then his weaknesses would not be so important relatively, and those that really interfered with effectiveness could be attacked with more hope of success.

3. *To develop in teachers confidence, hope, ambition, enthusiasm, and determination.* Without these no teacher can be an important asset to a school; as they increase, a teacher has momentum that can be directed into effectiveness. This is one reason why a principal should in performing his supervisory duties begin with the activities that each teacher does well; recognition of them will give confidence to grow and to attack more resolutely the difficulties of which he is aware. Confidence begets hope, and hope begets ambition. If a principal can discover to teachers their powers, he can help them to ambition, to enthusiasm, and to the determination necessary if they are to grow into greater effectiveness.

4. *To lead teachers to appreciate and to accept opportunity and responsibility.* If teaching is to be a profession rather than a mechanical performance of assigned duties, each teacher must understand the opportunity for social service and devote himself wholeheartedly to it. As Burton well says, supervision "should lead a teacher to see the importance of her work and the dignity of teaching." Some attempt will have been made in professional training to develop an appreciation of this opportunity but much will remain to be done to keep it alive and to increase its significance. It is easier to get a verbal expression of appreciation of the opportunity than it is to secure a pragmatic acceptance of responsibility. Most teachers, especially when young, undoubtedly want to make their contribution to human welfare, and many of them enter upon their work with altruistic enthusiasm. This desire and this enthusiasm will continue only as means are found for giving them effective expression. The principal in the individual conference, then, has a constant challenge to arouse an appreciation of the opportunity for social service or continually to keep it alive by revealing the opportunities and by helping to formulate plans that are likely to make an obvious and a significant contribution. When a faculty have a serious and continuing realization of their responsibility so to teach as to make the



community a better place in which to live and in which to make a living and when they are conscious that what they are doing significantly is contributing to this end, there will result a true and enduring professional spirit. It is in individual conferences that the principal can do most to develop this spirit.

5. *To help teachers make a long-time plan for growth.* This purpose will not be one of the first to be attempted. It must wait until each teacher recognizes his own powers and wants to increase them for greater effectiveness. It must wait until the supervisor has been of help so many times in minor matters that he is depended on for more material aid. It must wait until the teacher has developed both assets that are significant and a professional ambition that promises to be persistent. Then he will welcome the assistance that the principal can give in a series of conferences, assistance that will enable him to look forward a long time, to determine what he wants to do and be, to understand what his possibilities are and how they are most likely to be achieved. This is the kind of guidance that every experienced principal can give to younger teachers with every prospect of its being welcomed and accepted. It will not be given all at once. The wise principal perceiving the opportune time will challenge the young teacher to look ahead, and then he will give help as it is needed until the general plan is developed.

6. *To incorporate each individual teacher into the professional group.* It is a characteristic of teaching, as of several other professions, that it tends to develop isolated individualism rather than an appreciation of the coöperative spirit of team play. A teacher ordinarily is alone with groups of pupils the greater part of each day; he tends to plan and to carry on his work in relative ignorance of what the other teachers, even those of the same pupils, are doing; and he is likely to resent any encroachments by others on the program that he has prepared. And yet he is just one of several teachers who are attempting to give education to a group of youth, and these youth have much less power to synthesize after classes what they have learned than teachers have to unify it beforehand. Somebody should see to it that the individual teacher is constantly kept aware of the whole educational plan and made conscious of the constantly coöperative part he is expected to



play in it; somebody should counteract the tendency toward sensitive individualism and turn it toward loyal teamwork. Nobody else is likely to assume this responsibility if the principal does not. If he does not, there will be only a pretense of "a gradual, continuous, unitary process of education" for youth. Instead, the pupils will learn mathematics and science and history and language as so many disparate subjects, unrelated to each other and largely unrelated to life. Of course the principal will attempt this objective primarily by means of group teachers meetings, but when he has done all that he can do there he will have need of using many individual conferences for supplementary work. A teacher will be integrally incorporated into the professional team not merely by recognizing the need, but also by being continually referred to the general principle and helped to discover how his particular field of activity can be made to contribute to the general program. Developing from earlier teachers meetings this purpose will also contribute to later ones.

7. *To supplement group teachers meetings.* There are numerous other ways that individual conferences will supplement group meetings of teachers. In the latter, as stated in another chapter, there will be formulated the general definitions and principles of education that should determine the work of every class every day; there will be developed the program and the policies of the school that promise the maximum contribution to the approved objectives; and there will be emphasis on the unity of the educational program from its beginning to its end. But in the group meetings some teachers will not thoroughly understand; some will have objections that they are too timid to express; and many will either not see how the general principles and program should affect the field of their responsibility or they will make no consistent effort to introduce indicated changes. The individual conference affords almost the only opportunity of supplementation. In it is possible intimate discussion that will serve to clarify what was obscure; in it questions can be raised and answered; in it objections can be heard and refuted; and in it continual reference can and should be made to accepted principles and the total program to indicate how the activities of learning in a special field can contribute most assuredly and most consistently.



8. *To clear up doubtful points.* After observing a teacher's work a supervisor will have in mind one or more points about which he is not certain. The uncertainty may be due to his ignorance of what has gone on in preceding classes, of peculiar characteristics of the pupils, or of what the class or teacher is planning for the future. The conference is his opportunity to clarify his mind on these matters. Questioning to get information is a very good way of beginning a conference anyway, for it reveals an interested openmindedness besides permitting the teacher to make explanations that may prevent alienating criticisms. When a supervisor is inclined to be dogmatic on points that he does not thoroughly understand, it is time for him to be wary.

9. *To give recognition and praise.* At the risk of offensive repetition emphasis is again given to the wisdom of the supervisor's focusing attention on the effective and the promising. A supervisory conference should practically always begin with what is good in a teacher's work. If it is difficult to find, the observer should reflect on his own competence. The good may be commonplace, not outstanding from the common practice of other teachers, but for that reason it is no less good and therefore deserving of commendation. How can it be made better? Recognition with suggestions for growth gives confidence and hope even to the teacher otherwise poor. What he has of good is his chief capital, and only as he realizes that it is praiseworthy can he best be stimulated to develop it into something that will add to his worth to the school. As he becomes strong and confident in even one phase of his activity he will become receptive to suggestions that look to overcoming his weaknesses in others.

Human nature finds it easier to discover weaknesses than virtues; but it is the latter that make any teacher valuable. Every principal should constantly attempt to curb his natural inclination to point out defects in a teacher, even though he has in mind remedies that he is confident will be efficacious. The most effective leaders are those who have the perspicacity to seek the unusual and the promising in others, and having found it to give to it recognition, encouragement, and direction. Therefore in the supervisory conference the principal will make a point of recognizing what the teacher does best and to give it



generous, sincere praise. It may not be outstanding when compared with the activities of superior experienced teachers, but it is the best that the teacher who is to be helped by the conference has. It is his capital, the increase of which will make him valuable to the school, and it deserves both recognition and praise. On the other hand, it may be unique; it may be something which if developed will make this teacher a leader for all the rest of the faculty. The wise principal will be diligent to find virtues; and he will seek to give to strengths direction and opportunity for growth. The more difficult these things are, the more diligent the supervisor should be to do them. The supervisor should without fail orally recognize effort toward improvement.

10. *To administer criticism.* If this purpose were exactly and ideally stated, it would read "To help the teacher to want criticism and to make it wisely of his own work." It is perfectly sound to lead a teacher to appreciate the need of criticism and to invite it; it is rather an exaggeration of the ideal, however, to expect that he will be able to make of his own work all of such criticism as will most effectively improve it. Inevitably the supervisor comes to the conference with appreciation of certain weaknesses in a teacher's work, weaknesses of which the teacher himself is often unaware, especially when they are determined by principles that he does not comprehend and by standards that he does not know. Some of these weaknesses are of small importance or are inherent in the person; these should usually be passed over in the supervisory conference. Some of them can be remedied only after strengths have been built up and confidence has been established; mention of these should be deferred. A few may be vital, preventing everything else from being effective; these are the ones of which the supervisor should make the teacher conscious so that he will want and hospitably invite help.

It is sometimes not realized by the supervisor that precisely the desired improvement in a teacher's activity can more effectively be induced by constructive suggestion than by beginning with a negative criticism. However well intended, criticism always hurts. As Livingston Lord used to say, you can't chloroform a person when you criticize him. It not only hurts, but it often prevents receptivity to consequent constructive



proposals. When the acceptance of a proposal for better practice is probable, why endanger it by beginning with a statement of weaknesses? There are occasions, of course, when it is necessary for a supervisor to criticize, to point out the demerits of plans or of procedures. Some teachers are too complacent in old habits, some are too stubborn in old principles to be moved merely by suggestions of what may be better. If criticism is desirable to clear away the underbrush of obstruction, it should be presented frankly, without heat, and justified by principles, usually those to which the teacher has already given approval in the group meetings, and by data carefully recorded during observation. Criticism can be given in the privacy of a conference with less likelihood of offense and with more probability of its being understood and accepted than under any other conditions. The supervisor should get assurance at the time when criticism is given that it is exactly understood and he should use all of his skill to get from the teacher not only acceptance but also an oral expression of acceptance.

11. *To get help.* The principal should go to every conference with the definite idea of learning something that will increase his own potentiality, and he should use all of his skill subtly rather than overtly to make this purpose clear to the teacher. All the conditions make it difficult that this purpose be kept in mind: the principal is the official superior of the teacher, who frequently stands somewhat in awe of him; he usually has wider experience and a broader outlook; and as a rule he has his mind pretty well made up before he seeks the conference. But unless he makes a conscious effort to learn from teachers, he is missing a great opportunity not only to build up his own assets but also to create an attitude of hospitality for such suggestions as he may make. Unless the principal constantly realizes that others have knowledge and ideas that he should get, it is easy to develop a handicapping attitude of superiority and even of omniscience. He will make this purpose clear to the teacher by sincerely seeking to learn rather than by an open statement. Every teacher, even the humblest beginner, knows some things about his classes that the principal is not likely to know; many teachers have novel ideas, occasionally unique and highly promising, that the principal has never observed or even thought of. By learning these he better understands



the school and he is more competent to help not only the teacher in conference but others as well.

In addition to increasing his own assets, the principal by continually seeking to learn from teachers creates in them a receptivity for what he may have to suggest. Receptivity increases receptivity. When a teacher realizes that the principal is openminded and eager to learn, he more easily comes to take the same attitude. It should go without saying that the principal should frankly express his previous ignorance and his appreciation of the information given him. More than that, he should be alert to help the teacher plan how it can more effectively be used to better the pupils. His experience and his educational philosophy can usually enable him to see significances even in what the teacher has thought a commonplace or something of little importance. Anything derived from a teacher and built up into a significant part of the program for growth is likely to increase the teacher's morale and his eagerness to apply and extend his own idea in his work. By an attitude of learning, the principal not only learns but he helps others to learn.

## II. Types of Supervisory Conferences.

1. *The pre-teaching conference.* With teachers new to a school it is usually wise to have a series of conferences before their classes are observed. They need much help to acquaint them with the ideals, the program, and the routines of the school and to give them confidence in planning and in carrying on the duties assigned them. To set a new teacher, especially one with little or no experience, at a job with only general instructions is to invite trouble. It may motivate their seeking for help, but the harm that may be done to their confidence and to the early impressions that pupils form is not easily overcome. A series of individual conferences, beginning if possible even before the new teacher faces his classes and continuing until he has developed confidence and the sense of need for more such expert help as he has already experienced, is invaluable. It is much more economical to prevent trouble than later to attempt to remedy bad effects. In these preliminary conferences the principal can learn much about the new teacher and can reveal to him the competence for help that later will be at his call. He can make the new teacher realize that he has entered into a coöperative enterprise



of great social responsibility, an enterprise of which he may be an integral and increasingly important part. Help on early lesson plans is especially desirable, as making them will clarify understanding of some general principles, give confidence for the first difficult days, and initiate the practice of careful planning that is highly desirable whatever his experience.

The conference before some unit of work is undertaken should not be confined to new teachers, however. It has much value even to those who have had long service in the school. In it the supervisor may further clarify general principles that have been presented and discussed in teachers meetings, and in it may be coöperatively worked out plans for translating them into a practical program in the field for which a teacher is responsible. Those who habitually think in terms of general principles seldom realize the difficulty that other people find in applying them concretely to practice. A principle may be orally approved, even with enthusiasm, but unless it influences what is done in the classrooms it is of no real value. Every principle that is important should have continuing influence. If the supervisor expects this influence, he will be wise to select one or more promising teachers and carefully work out with them the first plans for application. Early success will encourage these teachers to continue and to develop the application under a decreasing amount of supervision until they become the leaven that will influence the rest of the staff. It is thus that the wise principal will develop assistant supervisors, who will informally stimulate and influence their colleagues and to whom other teachers may later be sent for observation. Such conferences for similar purposes should gradually be extended to other teachers who are attempting to apply principles.

Similarly the pre-teaching conference can well be used to develop with teachers, beginning with those who are most likely to succeed, plans for practices new to the school. Not infrequently novelties are most easily initiated with young teachers or with those new to the school. It may be that techniques for handling large classes are to be worked out, or that the unit plan of instruction is being introduced, or that diagnostic testing is a part of the new program, or that more socialization in the classrooms is desired. The careful working out of plans for such novelties by interested and able teachers in



coöperation with the principal will at least insure that there is not the handicap of indefiniteness, of early failure, and consequently of discouragement and lack of interest. If even a few teachers are helped to be successful in the first stages of the introduction of a novel procedure, the rest of the program is relatively easy. Ambition, emulation, and even frank imitation will facilitate the spread of the practice, and improvement upon the early plans is likely to spring up in unexpected places. Whenever a teacher shows an especial interest and unusual ability in any procedure, he should be given especial encouragement and help. Realism insures that not all the teachers of any faculty will be equally interested in any new procedure and that not even the best supervisor can expect all of them to use novelties equally well. Most progress of the school as a whole will come from supervisory help to the interested and the able.

Another profitable use of the pre-teaching conference is as a follow-up of previous conferences. In them there have been discussed special needs or special aptitudes that have been discovered. After reflection and additional preparation the principal may decide that it is wise to work with the teacher coöperatively to develop plans of procedure before further observation of classroom work. Even the best-conducted post-visitation conference may leave one teacher discouraged and helpless or another one stimulated but uncertain what to do. When such attitudes are discovered, further help should be afforded and afforded promptly while the conditions are favorable. Teacher A may realize that he needs to make better lesson plans or to make concrete his teaching by more abundant verbal or material illustrations, but he doesn't know how to get help. It is far more economical to afford that help in a pre-teaching conference than it is to observe his class again and find him still helpless and increasingly hopeless. The first help may well be very specific, but it should also lead on to a program that will enable the teacher more and more to help himself. One success stimulates desire for other successes, and the way that he may achieve them should have been clearly indicated. The weaker the teacher, the more detailed the plan must be.

Teacher B affords another problem. He is using some procedure with success and the principal thinks he manifests promise of developing an unusual success in it. Perhaps he is



beyond the average interested in supplementing his instruction by field trips or by excursions to places of interest. He has developed a technique that is excellent, but he fails to see further possibilities and he does not fully realize the educational implications. He has been encouraged by the principal's praise and is eager to move forward, but he does not know how. He is on a plateau of growth and needs help to move upward. This is the ideal challenge to the supervisor. He may have some ideas, he may know where to get others, or he may be able to direct the teacher to sources of help, either in books or in other people who have faced the same problem. But lacking any of these, the principal can and should seize the opportunity while the teacher's enthusiasm and ambition are high to give further encouragement and the stimulus that inevitably comes from discussion between two minds interested in the same thing. Even if there is no immediate result except to keep the good practice going, the teacher and the school are profited. But when two good minds continue to discuss a problem, new ideas are likely to crop up; each is a stimulus to the other; and each contributes to the other a balance of judgment from another point of view. Under such a challenge the conferences will probably be informal, but they should be frequent and continuous until a new path forward has been found.

2. *The post-observation conference.* The conference with a teacher after the principal has observed one or more classes or has studied lesson plans, test results, or recommendations of other supervisors is the most common type. Its purposes have already been considered and suggestions for its most effective use will be given later. Teachers should not expect a conference following every observation: some may be merely for the purpose of inspection; others may yield nothing of sufficient importance to warrant an immediate conference; and others still are part of a series that is contributing to a unified problem best considered as a whole. As a matter of fact it may safely be asserted that the most satisfying conferences are those held after a series of observations that have been made in a short period of time, perhaps within a week or less. They give a picture that is more truly representative than one single observation is likely to do. The series may well be planned so that the principal can get a fair opinion of the work with one



group or class of pupils or with one type of instruction, though on occasion the principal may wish to get a general impression of the teacher and his work by observing a cross-section of his entire program.

There has been considerable difference of opinion as to whether the observations should be announced to the teacher beforehand or not. There can be little question of the wisdom of not announcing the post-visitation conference as a formal and formidable engagement. If the principal after an observation states orally or in writing that a conference will be held after school, many teachers will be so disturbed that they cannot teach effectively during the rest of the day. Perhaps worse still is the summons to a conference like a subpoena to court. Arrangements for a conference should be made with as little formality as possible and for a time when the teacher is least hurried or harried by other duties. Probably the best procedure is for the principal to drop into the teacher's room at a free period or after school and ascertain that there is no pressing duty that will make a conference undesirable at the time. Or he can have someone else relieve the teacher at a period when a study hall or a test is scheduled. Most of these suggestions apply chiefly to the conferences with a teacher before he has learned by experience not only not to fear the supervisor but actually to look forward to a conference with eagerness because he has learned by experience that he may expect coöperative help rather than unpleasant and profitless criticism.

On the other hand, the principal should make himself quickly available when a teacher asks for a conference. There are few other duties, chiefly those that are for the good of the entire staff, that cannot be procrastinated when there is an individual cry from Macedonia. The psychology of readiness cannot be neglected. It is far better for the principal, the superior officer usually with more poise and self-control, to adjust his own program than to postpone a request for a conference when the teacher is ready for it and perhaps somewhat nervous in anticipation.

The conference on call has many advantages, but it is not the only type that should be used. Some teachers will tend to monopolize the supervisor's time, going to him frequently and before making a serious attempt to apply suggestions already made.



The growth of the ability and habit of self-analysis and of self-dependence is to be sought with such teachers. Others with perfectly good reason will tend to consume a disproportionate amount of the supervisor's time, either because of a feeling of need or because of enthusiasm and ambition for growth. While their desires must be respected and their needs satisfied so far as time permits, the principal must keep in mind the good of the whole school. Often he must prepare a schedule of supervision that will include all teachers, and more or less closely follow it. He should always provide a margin of time, however, that can be given to urgent need or to unusually promising opportunity. Other teachers, because of timidity or of lack of awareness of need, will under the supervision-on-call plan seldom or never ask for it. With them the principal must work to remove their timidity or to make them conscious of a need that he is able, with their assistance, to satisfy. They may be invited to conferences until the obstacles to their seeking them are removed. Forcible feeding is better than starvation.

**III. Preparation for Conferences.**—The more important the means of supervision, the more it merits adequate preparation. It is worse than futile to hold a supervisory conference without careful preparation, for not only may it be ineffective, it may be positively harmful in its immediate effects and prejudice the teacher against later efforts to help him. Professor Frank McMurry after many years of abundant experience would never discuss an observed recitation until he had had ample time to think it over. Those of less experience might well profit from his example. Supervisory conferences with any teacher are too infrequent not to be as good as they can be made.

In preparation the supervisor will do well to review the purposes of conferences as previously presented and to decide which ones he will especially seek. He will recall the observed recitations in detail, paying attention especially to the pupil activities. What was the purpose that the teacher had and to what extent was it a good one? How did he plan to achieve it? Did the pupils understand and approve the purpose of the lesson? To what extent did they modify it or should they have done so? Constantly referring to principles that have been developed in teachers meetings, the supervisor will do well to list all of the points, good and bad that he has noted in observa-



tion, and because everyone tends to get into a rut he may profit from time to time by referring to one of the many supervisory check lists in order that other points which should be considered may be brought to his attention. Better to understand the lesson, he should attempt an imaginative reconstruction of how the teacher planned, of departures that he made from his plan, of why he did what he did. What the supervisor does not understand or cannot find a reasonable justification for he may plan to ask about in the conference. When he feels most certain of his judgments he should be wary lest, overlooking some reason that the teacher had, he fall into the pit of unjustifiable dogmatism.

With the recently observed lesson or lessons clearly in mind and both their good and poor points noted, the principal should review notes on earlier observations and conferences. To what extent has the teacher made an effort to profit from former suggestions? with what success? What growth is manifested? What new strengths and what new weaknesses have developed or are shown in the later work? Answering those questions for himself, the principal should modify and extend the long-term program for supervision of the teacher. It is neither feasible nor wise to undertake to discuss in a single conference all of the points that he has noted: some of them are relatively unimportant and can be deferred or mentioned casually at this or some other time; some the teacher is not ready to consider, needing either more confidence in himself or further development before they can profitably be taken up. But they should be noted in the long-term program so that they are not forgotten.

The principal will then ask himself what he hopes for from the single conference which he is planning. Obviously he can neglect the trivial and the irremediable. There is no need to criticize a weak voice that is an innate part of the teacher and so cannot be changed, or the furniture of the room, for the choice of which the teacher cannot be held responsible. The conference should be planned more or less as a unity, a part of the larger program of supervision that will be gradually developed. Usually it should deal with the application of only a single big general principle, the proper planning of the lesson, the assignment, pupil participation, or the measurement of results. Usually, also, it should be planned so that the teacher is left



with a few very definite specifics as well as with a program for the further application of the principle. Most teachers need the encouragement of realizing that they have suggestions of something definite to do immediately. But the better the teacher, the more he will profit from the challenge to develop and to apply for himself a general suggestion based on a principle that he accepts.

What can be hoped for from a single conference will be conditioned by the teacher's characteristics and his relations with the principal. Whether he is old or young, experienced or not, self-confident or timid, receptive of help or on a fearful defensive, respectful of the supervisor's purposes and ability or skeptical, in good physical condition or not—all these and other similar characteristics, whether temporary or not, should be taken into consideration during the planning. The supervisor has a constant challenge to plan for the use of tact; what will be effective with one teacher under certain conditions will fail with another. If he finds a teacher apprehensive, he can expect from him no more than thoughtless acquiescence or stubborn defense; only if he can put the teacher at ease can he expect receptivity to a proposal for the coöperative solution of difficulties or the coöperative development of plans for growth. Consequently the supervisor must consider the teacher and plan how he can best bring about not merely receptivity but also an active desire to profit from the conference.

The principal should plan first of all, as repeatedly emphasized before, to find and to develop the peculiar strengths of the individual. When criticism is necessary, it should be of the teaching process and not of the teacher. This may seem a subtle distinction, but it is a real one none the less. There is a decidedly different effect on a person when criticism is made of what he and his pupils did than that which results when the criticism hits him as a person. He is much more likely to accept the point when the supervisor asks what was the specific purpose of the lesson and raises questions about its definiteness and worth than if he should say, "You are weak in selecting a purpose for each lesson unit and I expect you to. . . ." As an extension of this principle, a teacher should never be criticized during a supervisory conference for personal or social faults. Such criticism may very properly be made by a principal when the defects



or faults interfere with teaching effectiveness, but it should be administered at some other place and time, so that the consequent embarrassment does not complicate the supervision of instruction.

In making his preparation for a conference the principal plans, then, for what he may reasonably expect to accomplish in one supervisory period; he decides on the points that he wishes to make and on the best means of making them; and in addition he will be wise to prepare beforehand the introduction, which possibly will be modified by the exigencies of the moment, and the more important questions that he intends to use. With such preparation he is ready. But he must be alert to modify his plan or to cast it aside entirely if circumstances warrant. He may find the teacher so full of plans to develop a phase of instruction that he had not intended to discuss or so perturbed about some weakness not in his program that it is wise entirely to follow the new lead.

Perhaps it is too much to expect that a principal in preparation for a conference will every time review his own competence and his characteristics that may make for or against success, especially with the teacher soon to be met. But certainly from time to time it is wise for him to do so. It is also wise for him occasionally to ascertain or to review what teachers want of the supervisor, whether or not he thinks they are warranted in their desires. Kyte reports<sup>1</sup> that 700 teachers especially commended their supervisors for such things as sympathetic understanding, showing appreciation of their efforts, a gracious or kind manner, openmindedness, coöperation, allowing a reasonable amount of freedom, exemplifying a good professional spirit, making an altruistic interpretation of situations, calmness, frankness, definiteness, and having a sense of humor. They believed that their principals could improve in definite, constructive criticism, in having more contacts with children's activities, in permitting teachers to have more liberty in working out their own ideas, in inspiring them with better ideals, and in "being human" in many situations. However definite his own ideas, a supervising principal may well consider every now and then what teachers like and what they want. If they don't want all of the best things, they will be more receptive of what

<sup>1</sup> G. C. Kyte, *How to Supervise*, pp. 177-178.



they should have if they first get what they think they ought to have.

In planning for a supervisory conference the principal will not, of course, neglect to take into consideration such matters as the condition of the room—its cleanliness and order, its temperature and light—physical welfare of the pupils, their behavior, the economies of class management, and the system of marking; but he will prepare to mention them at this time only if they affect the educational procedure and results. Following is a list of questions and suggestions that a principal may find it profitable to use when planning what he will discuss with a teacher in a supervisory conference following one or more observed recitations.<sup>1</sup>

1. What was the teacher's plan for the recitation? To what extent was it well ordered and comprehensive? How was it related to the preceding or the future work? to what is being undertaken by other teachers?

2. What was the teacher's purpose in each unit of the recitation? Why did it seem to be selected?

3. To what extent was it worthy, definite, and specific with relation to the knowledge and probable needs of the class?

4. How could it have been improved?

5. What possible contributions could the recitation make to the objectives of general education and of the particular subject? to the special functions of the school?

6. What purpose did the pupils have? Why did they have it?

7. Did any of the pupils, either individually or as groups, propose a purpose? What means could have been used not only to get them to do so but to evaluate their proposals and to develop good plans for achieving them?

8. To what extent did the pupils comprehend the purpose that the teacher had? approve it as worth while and adopt it as their own?

9. What means were used by the teacher and by the pupils to achieve each purpose?

10. To what extent did the pupils appreciate the means in terms of the purpose of the recitation unit?

11. How could better means have been discovered and used by both teacher and pupils?

12. What obstacles were there to achievement? Which of them could have been removed, overcome, or diminished? How?

<sup>1</sup>See also pages 335-336.



13. Consider the special techniques of assignment, direction of study, type of recitation, questions, illustration, summary, drill, application, and measurement of results.

14. How were the results measured and how could they be? Evaluate the ascertained results.

15. Wherein and to what extent were the pupils made better by this recitation?

16. Consider the observed recitation in terms of the teacher's effort, improvement, and plans for future growth.

17. Which points should be selected for discussion with the teacher at the next conference? Keep in mind all pertinent characteristics of the teacher, those that are temporary as well as those that are relatively permanent.

18. How can they most tactfully be educed or presented?

19. What long-term program for helping this teacher to grow is indicated, or what modification of a previously made tentative program seems wise?

20. What has the principal himself learned from the observation and the preparation for the conference?

#### IV. Techniques of the Supervisory Conference.—

*Frequency and length.* The frequency of supervisory conferences is limited by the time at the disposal of the principal and by the worth that he can put into them. There is little likelihood of good conferences being too frequent. A single poor conference is an excess. There is no value in referring to tables reporting the frequency with which supervisory conferences are held by principals or by other school officials, for there is general agreement that if they are good they are not held often enough; and there is no merit in listing the number held regardless of their value. It may be maintained, however, that every teacher—strong or weak, old or young, of whatever degree of promise—should be given at least two or three carefully prepared and extended supervisory conferences every semester. Those teachers who have special needs or who manifest unusually promising strengths should have more. There is no way of estimating how long a conference should be. Abraham Lincoln once said that a man's legs should be long enough to reach from his body to the ground.

*When and where held.* Ideally a supervisory conference should be held at a time convenient to both teacher and principal, when both are relaxed and not distracted by other pressing



matters, when it is not likely to be interrupted or terminated before substantial progress has been made, and after an interval following observation so that adequate preparation may have been made. Such a time is difficult to find. Obviously the conference should not be attempted immediately at the close of an observation. Usually a vacant period in the teacher's schedule or after school will be most feasible; and, as previously suggested, a teacher may be relieved of study-hall duty or of a routine class period so that the conference will not be felt as an added burden. Certainly the conference should not be so long postponed that details of the activities to be discussed are no longer sharp in memory.

Where the conference should be held depends largely on what outcomes are desired, and on the relationships that have already been established between the supervisor and the teacher. If the teacher is to be receptive he must not be handicapped by a strange environment. There is a subtle psychology that makes people uncomfortable and apprehensive when in a room to which they are not accustomed, especially if it is associated in their minds with unpleasant matters, such as official restrictive decisions. Early conferences should unquestionably be held informally in the teacher's own classroom, where he has the advantage of feeling at home and to the least degree embarrassed. There he is most likely to speak his own mind freely, to draw on his resources of books and concrete illustrative material, and to feel that the conference concerns the children whom he can easily imagine in their seats or at their activities; there too he is most likely to understand the suggestions that are made by the supervisor. It is difficult to make this psychology appear as important as practical schoolmen know it to be; but it is very real and very potent nevertheless.

To attain the ideal of freedom from embarrassment and psychic comfort conferences may sometimes be held briefly in the corridors or on the street, or more at length in the home of either the teacher or the principal. After the teacher has learned by experience that the principal is a coöperative co-worker not only genuinely eager to be of help but also competent, conferences may be held anywhere. There are some advantages in holding them in a room especially devoted to that purpose or in the principal's office, where a professional library to which



references can be made is easily at hand. The place of meeting should be private and fairly free from interruptions. But most of all it should be a place where the teacher is unembarrassed and can both talk freely and listen with his undivided attention.

*Beginning.* On the assumption that the principal has made careful preparation for a conference after one or more observations and that he has selected a time and a place that are the best possible, he is first challenged to get a favorable atmosphere. If the teacher is frightened or unduly apprehensive, he must be put at ease and made receptive. Usually this desideratum can be achieved by a brief general conversation that manifests common interests, both personal and professional. If a favorable atmosphere and a receptive attitude cannot be attained, the conference would just as well be postponed. Of course the best probability of an attitude of receptivity is for the teacher to want help, either to forward promising plans or to strengthen weaknesses of which he is conscious. He should know that the purpose of the conference is to aid him to be a more effective teacher and to coördinate his efforts with those of his colleagues. He should also believe in the competence of his principal to contribute to both these ends. This knowledge will come more convincingly from what goes on in the conferences than from any statement or series of statements of intent that can be made by the principal. However, it may not be amiss from time to time for the principal to support his efforts by calling attention to the purposes for which they are intended.

At the first conference the supervisor may well devote practically all his time to learning from the teacher. What are the characteristics of the class? Is it fairly homogeneous in ability and preparation? Are the pupils interested in the subject? What habits of study do they have? Which pupils manifest unusual promise? How can their work be promoted and also used to stimulate the others? Who are the problem pupils? What are the causes of each one's difficulties? How can the course be adapted to them? What methods have been tried and are planned to provide for individual differences? What is the teacher's ideal for this class? How is he planning to approximate it? etc. Such questions will undoubtedly open up a number of avenues down which the teacher and supervisor may profitably go together.



If an observed recitation is to be discussed, it is wise to begin by asking the teacher for his own interpretation, evaluation, and criticism. He can then freely explain the characteristics of the class, what he had planned, and why he departed from what he had intended. Such an explanation will not only frequently clear up points about which the supervisor had questions or which he had intended to criticize, but no less frequently will it make clear that the teacher is conscious of the weaknesses that were manifest and that he has a good justification for them or wishes to ask for help in improvement. Nothing is more irritating to teachers than to have a supervisor point out and emphasize weaknesses of which they are entirely aware and for which they may have reasonable explanations. It is the awareness and the consequent desire for help in improvement that are important; if they already exist, the principal's task is greatly lightened.

*The conference.* Having the teacher analyze his activities and those of his pupils, the principal will do well to encourage him to recognize his achievements as well as his failures. It is the former that are the more promising of profit from coöperate attempts to increase their effectiveness. The self-analysis, to which contributions will gradually be made by the supervisor, chiefly using questions and references to principles previously established, will to a large extent concern the aims, the methods, and the results achieved in terms of the pupils' activities and consequent growth. As the teacher presents his analysis the principal will be careful to appreciate his point of view, his fears, his handicaps, and his advantages. He will respect differences of opinion or judgment even when he disagrees with them, remembering that other conferences are to be held and that good relations must be maintained. This does not mean that dissent will not be expressed or that an attempt will not be made at the time or later to bring about agreement; it is merely a caution against the principal's failing to understand differences of opinion and judgment and, because of his own, failing to respect those of another who conscientiously and firmly holds them. There is always the possibility that the other person may be right—at least in part. Often there are two or more ways of doing things; and desired ends may usually be best accomplished when an individual follows a method in which he wholeheartedly believes.



There is something about an administrative position that usually makes an administrator talk too much. The principal should remember that there are two parts to a conference, as the etymology of the word indicates, that suppressed expression of ideas closes the ears, and that what is heard and believed is more important than what is said. Listening and understanding are likely only when a person has said what is in his own mind. However tedious the expression may be, it must be permitted; and if the teacher is later to be attentive, the principal must manifest interest by attention and questions. Some teachers will undoubtedly talk too much, rambling from the purpose of the conference and wasting time; but they must be heard none the less. When the principal is sure that a teacher has said all that he really has to say, he will bring the flow of language to a conclusion by fairly summarizing, to show that he has got the point completely. Other less talkative teachers must be encouraged to express themselves, usually by questions and by manifest interest for what they do say. However he may disagree, the wise principal will not often put a teacher too strongly on the defensive. A defensive mind is a closed mind. If a teacher can be led himself to express an idea that the supervisor is attempting to convey, he is much more likely to believe in it, especially when he is permitted to think that it is his own.

With his superior knowledge and, as a rule, his superior experience, a principal would usually have little difficulty, especially if he uses the prestige of his position, in overriding the opinions of a teacher. Frequently they are so weak that by sheer argument they can be shown up as untenable. Though it is quite proper for the principal to give reasons for a difference of opinion or judgment, he will not by inexorable questioning make the teacher admit the absurdity of a position that he has taken. A wise principal will permit a teacher to "save his face."

Self-respect and self-confidence are necessary for growth, and the success of future conferences depends on the maintenance of good relations as well as on the equanimity of the teacher. Many a person who has persisted in a weak position after he has appreciated that it was untenable has been everlastingly grateful to a superior who has permitted him to change his mind without the humiliation of open acknowledgment. The essential thing is that he should come to right conclusions with



the intention of avoiding in the future a weak position or of frankly abandoning it as soon as it is perceived as indefensible.

When the principal comes to discuss an observed lesson, he should always find something in it to praise. But praise should be sincere. Every teacher is intelligent enough to sense insincerity or the use of praise merely as an introduction to censure, as is evidenced by the doggerel:

When criticism must be heard,  
It's seldom on the level.  
The honeyed word is first conveyed—  
And then you get the devil.

Recognition and praise should be expressed first of all because it is due, and recognized appreciation of the good gives the hearer confidence in the justness of criticism of the bad. Moreover, it is more profitable to cultivate vegetables than it is to spend all of one's time pulling up weeds. Whatever is good is a living, healthy, promising thing to be recognized, cultivated, or directed. It can be made a standard to which the teacher will be ambitious to bring up other details of his practice.

Although, as repeatedly emphasized, the wise principal will devote most of his supervisory activities to developing embryonic strengths of teachers, there are occasions when it will be necessary for him to indicate weaknesses. It is surprising, however, to one who has not tried it how often it is possible to effect desirable changes by placing the stress on the better way of doing things rather than on the poorer way in which they have been done. When it seems wise to make adverse criticism, because a teacher is complacent, satisfied, lazy, or for any other reason, the principal should be entirely direct and frank. He should never "hedge": the weakness exists, it is recognized, and it is condemned, with reasons being given. As a rule the principal should not comment on the poor details of a lesson without being ready to make constructive suggestions for betterment. When he does not know what changes should be made for improvement, he should share with the teacher responsibility for finding or for inventing them. Often proposals should be made as suggestions for experiment to see how good they are. It should not be necessary to express the caution that a principal should never pretend to have knowledge that he does not possess.



Occasionally it may be well to have a teacher rate himself on one of the several scales that have been prepared for that purpose that he may become aware by his own judgment of his relative strengths and weaknesses.

It has often been said that a supervisor in conference should use three questions to one declaration; in other words, he should help the teacher to discover his own strength and weaknesses and to learn how to use the former and overcome the latter.

Leadership at its best uses a minimum number of arbitrary commands and a maximum amount of skilled and tactful assistance. . . . Rare is the occasion for the commanding method of leadership. Heavy reliance on the method of command usually indicates a failure by the leader to anticipate difficulties. . . . The skilled leader employs a variety of approaches in offering advice:

The suggestion: "If I were you . . . "

The question: "Have you ever tried . . . ?"

The reference: "Now, in Rochester they . . . "

The reminiscence: "I had good luck once by . . . "

The recall: "Do you remember the lesson we saw . . . ?"

The anecdote: "Did you ever hear the story about . . . ?" <sup>1</sup>

The average teacher usually wants direct and specific help, and of course some of this the principal should attempt to give. But his major challenge is to develop teachers so that they can help themselves. This means that they will have to be taught the principles of good teaching, convinced of their soundness, and in the beginning shown how to apply them to specific opportunities and needs. For the sake of economy most principles will be presented and discussed in teachers meetings. It is in the conferences that they are further supported and applied to actual situations. If a teacher learns to think in terms of principles and constantly to use them for guidance when confronted with a challenge to improve his work, he is on the road of true professional growth. It is not what he does in class on any one day that is important, but how he is growing. The supervisor can only occasionally be available for specific helps; principles of good teaching can be used at any time by the teacher working alone.

The principal should make the impression on the teacher

<sup>1</sup> *Leadership in Instruction*. Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, 1935.



that a conference is ultimately to effect better education of the pupils by coöperatively working to carry out the approved objectives of the school. At the same time he will convey appreciation of the fact that it is an opportunity for the individual's own professional growth. After indicating the teacher's peculiar strengths and possibilities and emphasizing the value of constantly using sound principles as directive guides, the supervisor will recommend books and articles to be read, in the beginning mentioning the exact pages which will prove most helpful, and he will suggest other methods elsewhere discussed—observation of the work of superior teachers, study in carefully chosen extension or summer courses, the attendance on professional conventions, and the like. Furthermore, after discussion of observed recitations he will recommend reflection in the light of what has been said in the conference, preferably indicating the kind of reflection that is likely to be most profitable.

Before a conference is adjourned it is usually well, especially if there is any doubt about suggestions having been understood, to have the teacher summarize it. "Just what have we agreed on?" "What is your understanding of what we are to attempt next?" are questions that often reveal less comprehension and agreement than the supervisor in his enthusiasm has assumed. What is crystal clear to the supervisor may be merely muddy haze to the teacher. The value of the conference lies in what the teacher as a result has accepted, whether he or the supervisor or both working together made the suggestion, and in what he plans to do differently in the future.

The principal should end a conference pleasantly, always keeping in mind that there are others to follow and that there is much work that he and the teacher have to do together. He has found it good, commended it, and suggested ways of making it even better in the future. He expects the teacher to succeed and to grow. He has expressed his confidence in at least one thing, and he expects the teacher to merit it in others. There is much more probability of growth when such attitudes are manifest than when the teacher is left humiliated and discouraged. If the conference is conducted along the lines suggested, the teacher will not only not be afraid of another one, but he is likely to ask for it.



**V. After the Conference.**—When a conference is adjourned the principal should make an early opportunity to reflect on it. He should grow too, and the best means is for him to realize his own successes and failures and to identify the causes of each. What modifications of the original plan were made and why? What were the best points in the conference? How was the teacher probably helped? What evidence is there of the probability? What mistakes were made and how could they have been avoided? How could the conference have been made better? What should be attempted at the next conference and what specific kinds of tactful means should be used? The principal should make a written record of all conferences and file it with other data concerning each teacher, and on this record he should make notations of a tentative plan to be followed at the next conference. The cumulative file will be increasingly valuable, not merely in helping the individual teacher but in planning to supervise others as well. It will prove of great help in preparing for subsequent observations and conferences, especially recalling to attention the details of teaching in which unusual growth is expected; it will serve as a record in case the teacher forgets or pretends to forget that he has accepted certain suggestions and has agreed to try them out in his work; and it will furnish the most important material to be used in helping a teacher win promotion. This record is entirely for the principal. If made with fullness and complete frankness, no useful purpose will ordinarily be served by giving the teacher a copy, though exceptions may for good reasons occasionally be made. If a written account of the conference is given the teacher, which will ordinarily be unnecessary if the suggested summary is required at the end, it will be much more brief, emphasizing only the most important points of agreement and recommendations. Much that very properly should go into the principal's record might do the teacher more harm than good if he became aware of it before he is ready for assimilation.

Soon after each conference, but not too soon, the principal should make another observation visit to observe the ways in which the teacher is attempting to improve his work. The visit should not be so early that he has not had time to work out his plans and to modify them after trial; and it should not be so long deferred that the edge of the suggestions has worn



dull. The conference is not complete without this follow-up. Often the teacher may be asked when the principal shall observe to see what improvement in the work is being made. This may not only save time, but it will prove a stimulus that some teachers need. Sometimes, especially if the principal is doubtful that the teacher really understood the suggestions or if he suspects that he needs help to achieve initial successes in attempting to apply them, the observation should be postponed until a constructive pre-teaching conference can have been held. "The supervisor must be infinitely patient, for the evolution of good teaching is a long, slow process."

**VI. Results of Conferences.**—There is no value in presenting data about the results of conferences unless one knows the kind that are held and also the envioning conditions. However, Hughes and Melby report that from 24 to 40 per cent of teachers from whom responses were received believe that they had made changes in their practices as a result of conferences, and that 35 and 80 per cent of heads of departments and of principals respectively believe that there are such subsequent changes. Kyte reports that Fuller in an unpublished study found by measures of pupil achievement in arithmetic and reading more improvement from supervision by individual conferences than from the same amount of time devoted to general group meetings. But individual conferences should supplement group meetings; neither should be used to the exclusion of the other. The real question with which every principal should be concerned is, What effects can *I* obtain by use of the supervisory conference? If it is of the kind outlined in the preceding discussion, the results are bound to be material. The better the principal and the more assiduous he is, the greater the results will be.

### EXERCISES

Applying not only what is presented in this chapter but also your own original ideas, especially those based on sound general principles, criticize the following conferences. Although there is no exact uniformity in the reports, an attempt has been made to present them so that significant points, both good and bad, of omission as well as of inclusion, are discernible. Following are some questions that may prove helpful.

1. What is good in each reported conference?
2. What results do you think are likely to follow from each one?



3. How could it be made better—by extension, substitution, or omission?
4. How should you plan to discuss one or more conferences with a principal whom you know if you were responsible for his effectiveness and growth as a supervisor?
5. What faults are so threatening that they should be discussed at once, looking to eradication or to modification?
6. What do you think should be planned for the next conference with two or three of these principals?

### CONFERENCE 1

The conference took place between myself and a teacher of French and Latin. I had visited her class and had seen an excellent example of poor teaching. I made an appointment with this teacher and at the appointed time I went to her room and had a talk with her.

The conference started with very few preliminaries. I frankly stated that I thought she was too sarcastic, too antagonistic, and too petty in her teaching. At the close of the class period she had apologized for having such a stupid and lazy class. I frankly explained that I thought her attitude was partly if not wholly to blame for that condition. I suggested that she change her method of procedure somewhat by asking each one some question that that individual could answer and then go on from that point, keeping in mind *her* attitude and speaking in a more friendly manner.

### CONFERENCE 2

Our principal visited my class of repeaters, English I, half of whom are unable to do high school work, having passed the eighth grade Regents by the grace of God.

I was attempting to interest these pupils in a particular part of *The Black Arrow*. We were enjoying a round-table discussion and they really recited because they wanted to. Needless to say, in this very poor class there were many bad grammatical mistakes—which, I hasten to mention, I had corrected too many times before. That day in order not to distract their attention from the discussion I omitted any corrections.

The principal left without one word when the bell rang, although he had entered in an agreeable humor at the beginning of the class and appeared interested throughout.

That afternoon I happened to step into the main office as he was leaving his private one. He stopped me there in front of the secretary and another teacher to discuss his observations and criticisms. He had nothing favorable or complimentary to say, but criticized me for not correcting the errors in English, giving his reasons for his comments. He continued to talk until the bell rang—five minutes later, when I had to go to my class. Since that time he has not been in to observe my teaching, nor has he referred in any way to the conference.



## CONFERENCE 3

The end of a hard day for Miss Seibolt, teaching her first year. Before her is a pile of papers to be corrected; her lessons are all to be planned for tomorrow; she is tired and discouraged. The principal enters, notebook in hand.

## A

*Principal:* "Miss Seibolt, I'd like to talk over with you the algebra lesson that I observed this afternoon. I'm afraid the pupils are getting the better of you. Why don't you send the unruly ones to the office if you can't handle them?"

*Teacher:* "I—I don't like to t-trouble you, sir; and I thought maybe they'd be better as time goes on. But they aren't. Wh-what can I do?"

*Principal:* "Be firm, be firm. If you can't make them study, send them to me. . . . I noted," referring to his memorandum, "that you called on the pupils in alphabetical order. That's a bad practice; they count on it. I also noted that you kept referring to your text. Don't do that; give the impression that you are familiar with the problems. Two boys copied their work before I put a stop to it. Watch them, watch them. That's all, I think. Good afternoon."

But it wasn't, not for Miss Seibolt.

## B

*Principal:* (sensing the situation and putting up his notebook): "What, Miss Seibolt, still working? It's too fine an afternoon to stay indoors. Why not get out for a walk or a game of tennis?"

*Teacher:* "Oh, I c-can't. All these papers to do and lessons to plan for tomorrow."

*Principal:* "I'll tell you what. Come around and have a simple family dinner with us this evening. We need cheering up a bit. And I'll teach your first two classes tomorrow so that you'll have time to get ready for the others. What is their assignment?"

*Teacher:* "\_\_\_\_\_"

*Principal:* "That's all right. It will be good for me to try my hand again. I'll tell you what we can do. I'll make lesson plans for my two sections and you make plans for the other two, and tomorrow afternoon—or Friday, if that's more convenient—we'll compare notes. What do you say?"

## CONFERENCE 4

I have never had what might be called a conference. Neither am I so conceited as to think that I could not profit by constructive criticism. We must not, however, overlook the fact that my present principal may be exceptionally efficient in getting across his ideas. On various occasions we have enjoyed each other's company on



picnics, at school athletic contests, and at golf. Many times have we "swapped ideas" on educational problems, office handling of specific discipline cases, classroom procedure, courses of study, prognostic and intelligence testing, correlation of classroom marks with Regents results and I.Q., etc. I have little doubt that the best kind of conference is the one in which the teacher does not even recognize that he is undergoing the ordeal.

#### CONFERENCE 5

During the past year I had a very gratifying conference with my principal who was new to the building and new to me. Having announced at the beginning of the year that she would expect us to drop into her office as soon after one of her visits as we could conveniently arrange, she found me before her on the morning following her first visit to one of my classes.

I had noted particularly that she had made no notes during the period she had spent with me, yet she drew from her desk a memorandum indicating that she must have returned to her office immediately following the visit to record her impressions. She put me at ease by remarking that it was good of me to give up a free period to talk with her. She explained that she had visited the class chiefly to watch it at work rather than to watch me work. Nevertheless she commented favorably upon the manner in which I had given the assignment, expressed approval of a device I had used to stimulate interest in drill, noted the large number of pupils who had participated in the recitation, and best of all revealed that she had understood the purpose of my teaching a particular type of work.

Next she indicated that she had been making a study of certain individuals in the class in various situations. She asked me to tell what I had discovered as to their abilities and aptitudes and possibilities. I welcomed this opportunity to discuss my problems with her without having had to seek it. As a result of our talk she proposed to interview each of these pupils to help me in every way to reach them and their parents more effectively than I had been able to do alone.

#### CONFERENCE 6

*Setting:* "Good morning, boys and girls." With this, the children rose and said, "Good morning, Miss L——." Miss L. then walked to the back of the room and sat down.

The principal observed my teaching for approximately an hour, during which time she sat in the back of the room and intermittently gazed out of the window, jotted down notes, looked over the children's shoulders to see what they were doing, and contributed bits of information here and there. As she left the room, she asked me to come to her office at the close of school at my convenience.



I went in her office and sat in a chair while she cleared up her remaining office duties—a matter of five minutes. When she had completed these duties, she turned to me and said, “It has been a lovely day, hasn’t it?” Mechanically, I agreed with her. She next said, while looking through her desk for the notes she had made on my teaching (another three minutes), “I wonder where I placed those notes?” I had no reply to this question, but my mind was filled with thoughts of her inefficiency, and I found myself questioning her ability as a principal and supervisor. At last, under a conglomeration of papers, the missing notes were located, and we were ready to begin a discussion which I thought was to be of paramount importance.

*Conference:* “I enjoyed your lesson today, and I felt that the children did also, didn’t you?” I agreed with her again.

She next said, looking at her notes, “Now to begin at the beginning. I have down here:

1. “I liked the way you assigned the lesson, particularly your explanation of the meanings of the difficult words which would be encountered in their reading in the text; also your pointing out to them the important thoughts they should look for, and your suggestion of jotting down in outline form the main topics.”

“Do you think they had ample time to record the assignment?” I said, “Yes.”

2. “Your summary of the comparison of life in the United States today with that of ancient Rome was most interesting. I hadn’t thought of it in that way, but do you actually believe that there is a rise and decline of nations?” I explained my ideas on the subject.
3. “Don’t you think that if your illustrations had been placed on the board before the lesson they would have been a little neater?” I replied that I was not trying to produce an artistic drawing, but merely a quick sketch to illustrate a point, doing this as the need arose and explaining it as I drew. Her next remark was, “Yes, I noticed that you were talking while writing on the board.”
4. “Don’t you think it was a little too cool in the room?” I said that I hadn’t noticed it.
5. “Don’t you think you should use cursive writing on the board rather than manuscript? I believe it would be easier for the children to read. Miss \_\_\_\_\_ who formerly taught here, used manuscript writing and it took me the longest time to get her to change.” I explained my reasons for using manuscript.
6. “The attention of the class was fine.”
7. “Don’t you think you should have had the children gather their materials and line up for dismissal before the bell rang?” I said, “No.”



8. "In summary, I would say the lesson was enjoyable." I thanked her and left.

### CONFERENCE 7

One day as I was walking through the corridor of the school in which I was teaching at the time, the English supervisor, who had visited one of my classes the previous day, encountered me and hailed me as follows:

"Good morning, Mr. \_\_\_\_\_ I've been wanting to tell you how much I enjoyed the lesson you conducted yesterday. Your pupils seemed to be very much interested and anxious to participate in the discussion of what constitutes good reading matter."

Because of the casual informality and friendly attitude of his approach, as well as his praise of my work, I immediately became favorably disposed toward what I soon learned was his purpose. This supervisor here demonstrated a very admirable quality, the quality of tact.

Before many more words were spoken, we were strolling together through the hall, and as we approached the door of his office he invited me to come in and "talk it over." I soon learned that he was really interested in what I was trying to do, which is not true of all supervisors I have known. Throughout our talk he capitalized his opportunity by commending me for certain things I had done during the recitation, thus demonstrating the fine quality in any supervisor, that of encouraging the good.

At the time I was a yearling teacher, laboring under the delusion that a good way to get pupils to do a lot of reading was to acquire the reading for credit points toward an English mark. This practice the supervisor wanted to discourage because he believed—and rightly, I think now—that the approach to encouraging good reading is through stimulating interest in books for their own sake rather than for the sake of credit. He told me he thought I had my pupils so interested in the subject of books, and especially of certain books which they had read, that he felt it was a shame to spoil the effect by ending the period by assignment of a certain number of books to be read by a certain date as a requirement for credit. I didn't like his suggestion that at the end of the period I had "spoiled" the effect I had created, and had he ended his conference with that remark, I would have felt "let down." But he was too wise to stop there. He immediately followed that expression of opinion with a good suggestion. He said he thought I had succeeded so well in interesting my pupils in reading good literature for its own sake that he would like it if I would conduct an experiment to see if I couldn't get an equal amount, even an increased amount, of good reading if I dropped the "reading for credit" method entirely and depended altogether on the "stimulating interest" method.



## CONFERENCE 8

*Principal:* (gruffly and sharply): "Sit down in that chair." After a pause in which he looks over his notes: "What have you to say for yourself? How can you justify the lesson that I observed?"

*Teacher* (flushing and embarrassed): "What do you mean? I don't understand."

*Principal.* "You ought to understand. I think I was clear enough." With an entire change of manner: "Perhaps you will pardon me when you realize what I am after. I was imitating as closely as possible what I observed in your classroom; I talked to you much as you talked to George and Arthur. You may not think so, but that is the way I saw it. You doubtless think that you had reason—or provocation; so have I. Everybody thinks that he is justified; doubtless those boys thought so. For two minutes now I am going to talk to you, both as your superior officer and as your friend; and then I am going to ask you to leave without saying anything in reply. Later we may talk about the matter if you wish. Now you are angry or humiliated or resentful. No one in that condition can think clearly or do himself justice. George and Arthur could not. It is my business to help you so that you can help them. If we do not help them, we fail as well as they, and the public investment of education fails. We are employed to see that it succeeds; we wish to justify our employment, to hold on, to advance. Transfer all of the feelings that you had two minutes ago to those boys. What is necessary to get them in a right attitude toward you, toward the school, toward their work? I know that you are just enough to see my point. I am confident that you are clever enough to devise means to help them. Now think it over, all by yourself. Don't talk about it; just challenge yourself. Good afternoon."

## CONFERENCE 9

In my first year of teaching I was facing the very embarrassing and humiliating experience of having one-third of a seventh grade music class fail to make passing marks. I had tried every means possible for correcting this condition, but nothing seemed to work. I was finally forced to go to my principal and ask for his aid. He talked with me for a while and took the names of the particular children and told me he would be in to visit the class that afternoon. After seeing the class at work he asked me to come to his office the next day after school and said that he would be very glad to give me help with the problem.

In the conference he first examined with me a report that he had made on the responses that I had got from questions and problems put before the class. By his tabulation I found that out of some twenty or more questions asked during the course of the lesson not one had been answered by the failing children. We then looked over



the school records of the particular children and were able to determine something of the background of each child. The reports showed that not one of the children was below normal intelligence but that in each case they were being brought into the school from a district where families were of a very low scale of economic and cultural standards. While we were studying these records the principal recalled questions that I had asked and illustrations and materials that I had used and I soon realized that my material was entirely out of the cultural scope of these children. I at once grasped the situation that I had created and told my principal what I thought was wrong. He agreed that I had hit upon the main trouble and offered to help me remedy it. Together we worked on the next day's unit until I was satisfied that I had the situation in hand. Before I left he referred me to several books and an article dealing with the problem of interesting backward children in the fine arts.

#### CONFERENCE 10

The instructor was conducting a European history lesson. It had begun with an associative review of the unit of work which this lesson was continuing. The supervisor came in during the topical discussion, observed several volunteers carry forward the lesson by the same procedure, and also heard a summary given by another pupil. While the classes were passing the supervisor suggested that the pupils did well in the topical discussions, but he doubted that they were getting any organized view of the history as a whole. The teacher replied he was not certain of the effect but would test the pupils to see the result. Thus the conference ended. The teacher tested the next day with satisfying results. However the subject was never again considered by supervisor and teacher.

#### CONFERENCE 11

The principal dropped into my class one day just five minutes before the close of the period. When the bell rang he came up and intimated that he was sorry he had been so late in coming in and that he had been detained by one thing or another. "Johnson, old man," he said, slapping me on the shoulder fraternally and smiling like Teddy Roosevelt all over his face, "I surely am pleased with the way you are growing. Everything seems to be going fine with your work. The boys have a good word to say about your classes and I certainly like your spirit about the school. It's a great life, isn't it? Well, I must come earlier next time, mustn't I? But then, you know, I don't think it is especially necessary for me to visit your classes. I like to give our teachers free rein to work out their own plans and I have confidence in you to do good work." With another slap on the back he was gone in a whirl of business and I slowly gathered up my papers and books and slipped out of a side door to lunch.



The morning had been a discouraging one. I had not taught a good class and I knew it. Instead of getting good advice and help, which I wanted, I had received an avalanche of empty praise. I knew that my principal had a habit of getting a lot of information about teachers from conversations with pupils in their classes and I did not doubt in the least that a report of unskillful fumbling on my part with a difficult situation in class a few days before had been the real reason which had brought him to my room. He had tried to steam-roller some confidence into me by attempting to make me believe that I was possessed of some superlative skill. It didn't work. I became more and more skeptical of his cheerful greeting each morning and always looked for some weak spot when he was particularly profuse in his praise.

## CONFERENCE 12

*Scene:* The lawn of Mr. Bennett's home. Two men smoking in comfortable chairs after dinner, while the twilight fades. Mr. B. has taught Latin in the local high school for twenty-three years, venerating the subject, confident of its superiority to all others, and somewhat resentful of their encroachments. He has a fine mind, which he applies to wide reading of serious politics, international relations, and current fiction, not all of which is "classic" in its standards. Personally he is dignified but friendly with a select few, whom almost unconsciously he considers intellectuals. He would resent being thought a snob.

*Principal:* "I was reading recently Gilbert Murray's translation of *Iphigenia at Tauris*, a beautiful thing."

*Teacher:* "I read Euripides' *Medea* in the original at college."

*Principal:* "Frankly it was a surprise to me that the old Greek drama could be so charming. What is translation, anyway?"

*Teacher:* "An expression in English of the thought of an author in a foreign language."

*Principal:* "Murray made me feel that it was something more, a conveyance of feeling, of atmosphere—call it what you will—as of thought. I never got that idea when I was translating in school or college."

Teacher discourses on the topic, citing Matthew Arnold's famous essay.

*Principal:* "About the time I read *Iphigenia* I saw in a newspaper one of F.P.A.'s renderings of an ode by Horace. It had slang in it, but very charming slang, which surprisingly seemed quite appropriate."

*Teacher:* "I can't imagine it."

*Principal:* "I couldn't either—before. So I went to the public library and got a standard translation. It was better than the 'trot' that I used, but pleased my plebeian taste less than F.P.A.'s did."

*Teacher:* "I'd like to see it. Horace is too sacred for slang."



*Principal:* "Yet he wrote to give pleasure, didn't he? Well, I got more pleasure from one translation than from the other. Here's one stanza from F.P.A.'s:

"In the happier years gone by me,  
In a well-remembered day,  
Yours the custom was to eye me  
In a not unflattering way.  
When than I none was than-whicher,  
When none other dared to fling  
Arms about you, I was richer  
Than the noted Persian king."

*Teacher* (smiling in spite of his prejudices): "'Donec eram gratus tibi . . .' I learned that under Old Butch."

*Principal:* "If I'd got that pleasure ten years ago I might have elected more Latin. Seeing that I was interested, the librarian brought me Louis Untermeyer's *Including Horace*, which among other things presents twenty-four different translations of the *Integer Vitae*, in the manner of many different poets, from Robert Herrick to Carl Sandburg."

*Teacher:* "Horrors! Shades of Horace, I can't imagine it!"

*Principal:* "But they are good fun. Admitting they are a *tour de force*, I think from all of them together I got a better idea of the ode than I'd ever got before; and, too, they set me to thinking again about what translation is."

*Teacher:* "\_\_\_\_\_."

*Principal:* "I dare say you are right. I wish I had your background of knowledge. Would it be a desirable outcome of our teaching of the classics if our boys and girls should not only acquire 'touchstones of literary taste' but also an appetite for continuing their readings, perhaps in translation, of the great literature of the past?"

*Teacher* (perceiving a new possibility of advancing interest in Latin, which is not popular): "\_\_\_\_\_."

*Principal:* "How could we do it?"

*Teacher:* "I think there are possibilities. Let me think it over. Of course we need some books, some of the Loeb library, for instance."

*Principal:* "Well, we have a little money left in the library fund; the English and history people haven't spent all of it yet, and I can't see why they should have a monopoly on 'parallel readings.' The science and the home economics people want an appropriation for a similar purpose."

*Teacher:* "Stinks, washtubs, and garbage!"

*Principal* (laughing): "Don't be too hard on them. They are pioneering, as Latin teachers did once. Perhaps you people need to pioneer again, too, not only to hold what you have but to advance." (Going on quickly) "I wonder if some of our cultured



citizens wouldn't make a donation to a special library fund for this purpose."

*Teacher:* "Yes, I'm sure I can get some money from X and Y. They don't like this modern education any more than I do."

*Principal:* "Wouldn't it be fine if we could pay them back with an unusually good set of translations by the pupils of some standard Latin? Perhaps your friendly rivals, the art and manual training teachers, would help them get out the translations in good form.—Well, I must go. I want to read Gilbert Murray's *Medea* before I go to bed."

### CONFERENCE 13

I was called in for a conference with my principal near the close of my first year of teaching. He had dropped into my classes several times during the year but only for short inspectional visits. The purpose of our first conference was to discuss a class in United States history which he had observed for the entire period. He began the conference by telling me that he was pleased with my work and considered me a very satisfactory beginning teacher. He impressed upon me that the report was a fine one to receive and then began his discussion of the class he had observed. From the very beginning his advice consisted of warnings and "don't's" for my work in the future. On the whole I gathered that he approved of my work as shown by some of his statements:

1. "You have a good method of motivation and presentation, but . . ."
2. "Your method of getting response from the pupil, was good, but . . ."
3. "The method in which you concluded the lesson and made provision for the 'carry over' into the next day's lesson was excellent, but . . ."
4. "Do you think your mannerisms are exaggerated?"

In a like manner he continued the conference commenting on things he approved and immediately qualifying them with cautions. At the close of the conference he expressed the hope that I would be a member of his faculty for the following year.

### CONFERENCE 14

*Setting:* The time of the conference was after school and the place in the principal's office where there was the least possibility of interruption.

*Preparation:* The supervisor spent an hour preparing his notes and observations on the recitation. He made an earnest effort to discern the purpose of the lesson and to evaluate the techniques used by the teacher to realize the purpose, or what he thought the teacher's purpose to have been. The supervisor considered the quality of the questions put to pupils, the pupil response, and



pupils' originality and initiative as shown by the discussion. Thought was given to the question of the teacher's effort to realize some of the all-school objectives which had been formulated and agreed upon at the first teachers meeting of the year. And finally, the matter of assignment of the following day's lesson, as well as the several constructive suggestions he intended to offer the teacher were reflected upon.

*Conference:* The supervisor succeeded at the outset in placing the teacher at ease by complimenting her on the spirit of her class and the very effective use she made of concrete illustrations. The teacher talked freely on her method of approach, her main purpose, problems relating to individual pupils, and why the procedures she used were desirable. The supervisor learned that this recitation was one of the three planned steps in the unit and that the ultimate purpose was not only worthy and definite, but was based on a sound philosophy of education. Further, he learned that the teacher's goal included a definite, planned attempt to realize one of the all-school objectives. The supervisor offered two suggestions which he thought would add to the effectiveness of the recitation. First, he suggested that the teacher phrase her questions in more simple and more direct fashion. Second, he suggested that she make an effort to secure wider pupil response, because of the 29 pupils in the class 12 took no part in the discussion. Here was an opportunity for this history teacher to capitalize on an unusual militant interest in the unit under discussion. The supervisor suggested that the teacher try the panel plan whereby four pupils would lead the discussion from the front of the room and among these four would be two of the backward pupils. Later the problem could be thrown open for general discussion. These two plans, the principal felt, were all that he could reasonably hope to accomplish through the teacher at this conference.

The conference ended pleasantly with the principal expressing a desire to revisit the teacher's class. The teacher left the office with the feeling that the principal was working in the interests of the whole school, and in addition that he was interested in her professional growth.

#### CONFERENCE 15

The lesson began with my giving the assignment. The point to be understood was the reasons why the delegates to the Third Estate declared themselves the supreme law-making body of France. I started off, "For the last few days we have been studying the miserable condition of the people of France. In your material today you see that the king called an assembly of the delegates representing the people of France. If you had been a villager in France, what demands would you have urged your delegate to make?" Demands suggested were the abolishment of serfdom, of feudal dues, etc.

"There were a number of others that we haven't mentioned;



the text goes into more detail. Do you think it is important for us to understand fully what the peasants demanded of the king? Make a complete list of these demands.

"Now suppose you weren't a peasant, but had a little shop in Paris. What demands would you have pressed upon your delegate?" Same line of questioning for bourgeoisie, nobles, church. The pupils decided that they ought to know the reforms that each estate demanded, and they were asked to make the proper lists. I then asked them to imagine that they were Louis XVI and to write a brief description of the program he would have presented to the Estates General.

My aim for the day's lesson was to contrast the character of Louis XVI with that of his wife; to explain the program of Louis' ministers and the reasons why their programs failed; and I tied it up with the assignment by continuing, "Did Louis XVI present any sensible plan?"

A special report of Louis' character was then presented by a pupil. The class was encouraged to take notes and to ask questions. The questions were not too penetrating and I was compelled to ask the class reporter to clear up certain points. Then I asked the class to give suggestions about interesting books on Louis XVI. "Are there any movies now playing which might help us to understand the French king?" The class mentioned *Madame DuBarry*.

The same procedure was followed for a special report on Marie Antoinette.

The remainder of the lesson was straight questions and answers aiming at an understanding of the ministers' programs for reform and why they failed. My thought questions were pointed towards an understanding of the causes of revolutions generally. For instance:

"When a monarch sees his people becoming discontented, should he yield certain points or should he stand firm?"———"Why?"———"What danger is there in yielding?"———"in standing firm?"———"Why does history show so many kings who refused to make concessions to the people?"———"What were the results?"———"What are you going to suggest in your program when you become Louis XVI tonight?"———

Mr. K, the department head, came in about fifteen minutes late, in the middle of the special report on Marie Antoinette. He left about five minutes before the end of the period, having remained about twenty minutes. After waiting for a few days and not hearing from him I dropped around to the office and casually asked him for any suggestions that he might want to make about my teaching methods. He consulted no notes, having taken none, and replied that he had found nothing to criticize and that he thought the class interested and responsive.

"You know," he said, "as soon as I enter a room I can feel whether or not a lesson is going over. I thought that yours did."



## CONFERENCE 16

*Principal:* "I don't know enough French to order a permanent wave in the sign language and I'm inclined to think that too many of our pupils elect the subject. But as long as we make the offering and they elect it, I want them to learn it well."

*Teacher:* "Naturally I feel French is more important than you do. Just think, it is the language of diplomacy; it represents a great culture; and it will be useful to all who travel abroad."

*Principal:* "What proportion of our pupils are likely to be diplomats or to travel in Europe?"

*Teacher:* "I don't know. But you never can tell. My motto is 'Be prepared.'"

*Principal:* "You wish the pupils to speak, understand, and read French. In what order of importance do you rank these?"  
"How are you emphasizing in your teaching the relative importance?"

"Do you believe that one learns to do by doing under direction?"  
"Then why not give the pupils more opportunity? I noted that you did most of the talking and reading aloud."

"What amendment does the old adage 'Practice makes perfect' need?"  
"I couldn't help thinking that your pupils are by practice learning bad habits and language rhythms. At least, you accepted from them French that sounded different from what you said."

"How do you explain the pupils' ignorance of so much of the vocabulary which, as you told them, they ought to know by now?"  
"How can you improve them in this matter?"

"Are the pupils curious about French customs and culture? Can they be made to be? How?"

"Are any of them reading outside class any French literature, in the original or in translation? What should you suggest to any who become interested?"

"Where can I find material on the enrichment of high school French courses? a good exposition of the method that you are using?"

"What use have you made on the reports of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages?"

"Well, we aren't nearly through what I'd planned to say, but I have other work to do now."

## CONFERENCE 17

The principal had visited the Latin class, which met just before the noon hour. He visited the class only about ten minutes and that was just before dismissal. When school was dismissed he came to the front of the room and mentioned the fact that we were studying Caesar. (This class *was* a class in Caesar.) The purpose for that day had been to get in mind the location of the various places and people mentioned in the part of the chapter which we were reading and to



picture the situation as it was at the time of writing. The supervisor evidently did not recognize the purpose for that particular day. Perhaps it was the fault of the teacher, but the whole discussion had centered around the purpose as mentioned.

The principal's suggestions were all concerning the mastery of the language, mastery of forms, of syntax, and of vocabulary. He had taught Latin in his earlier day. It was just the noon hour, so of course he did not sit down. There was only one hour for lunch and after he had talked a few minutes, I felt it necessary for me to get my hat and coat. He still talked about the mastery of the language. We walked out into the hall, I locked my door, and he still talked about mastery. We walked through the hall, down the steps and out to the front door, and he still was talking about mastery.

What had I learned from this conference? The one word *mastery*. I believed in that, but in that particular lesson I was not interested in the mastery of declensions and conjugations. I was so late for lunch that I had to hurry back to get to school on time.

### CONFERENCE 18

Miss Andrews is picking up papers and books in her classroom at the close of the working day, when the principal enters.

*Principal:* "All through, Miss Andrews? Are you in a hurry this afternoon?"

*Teacher:* "All through and not especially hurried. Won't you sit down?"

*Principal:* "I've been thinking all day about that European history lesson that I observed this morning, a delightful period. How do you get such good spirit in your classroom?"

*Teacher:* "——."

*Principal:* "I wish you could impart the secret to some of the younger teachers, Miss Manning, for instance. She nags the children and they naturally resent it. What do you think of the lesson itself? What should you try to do differently if you taught it over again?"

*Teacher:* "——."

*Principal:* "Fine! We grow only by reflecting on our mistakes, of omission and of commission. What were you trying to accomplish by means of the lesson? In what way or ways did you expect the pupils to be better because of it?"

*Teacher:* "I wanted them to understand the facts about the Children's Crusade and to remember the dates. Was not that obvious? The pupils always enjoy the story, really get excited about it."

*Principal:* "Yes; I noticed that. It is an interesting story, and a pitiful one—so much tragedy and so little gain! I kept thinking about the parents at home, the parents whose children never came back, and of those whose children came back changed—and perhaps theirs no more."



*Teacher:* "I might have used that. I didn't think of it. But was the gain small?"

*Principal:* "It seems so to me. What do you have in mind?"

*Teacher* (laughing): "Perhaps you forget your 'background of history.' You see——."

*Principal:* "Well, that is more like teaching. Do you think the pupils got that idea? I appreciate the necessity of their being interested and of their knowing facts; but I kept recalling the objectives of history teaching that you listed for me last fall and wondering if they, or any one of them, was in your mind when you planned this lesson."

*Teacher:* "Oh, those 'objectives'!"

*Principal:* "Don't you believe in them?"

*Teacher:* "Yes, but——."

*Principal:* "But what?"

*Teacher:* "I'm going to defer the new lesson and continue this one tomorrow. Come in and visit us. I'll have something to show you, something that we'll both be proud of."

What did the principal say then?

### CONFERENCE 19

On my return to my office after observing at his request Mr. T's class in electricity, I immediately made out the following report in triplicate, one copy for the principal, one for the teacher, and the other for my files.

#### *Observation Report*

*Date:* Oct. 3, 1938    *Time:* 9:00–10:30    *Building:* Central J–S.H.S.

*Observer:* H.W.H.    *Teacher:* Mr. H.    *Grade:* 10.

#### *Subject:* Electricity

1. Physical conditions: Good light, temperature very high, 74° F., ventilation good, cleanliness of room and teacher excellent, decorations many and varied.
2. Routine factors: Evidently no time was wasted in getting started. Seating and passing were orderly, handling of supplies is wasteful, handling of apparatus by students is careless, tending to heavy breakages, tool room well arranged and kept orderly by pupils.
3. Discipline: Very good, pupils attentive during recitation and talkative during laboratory period, tending to waste time.
4. Organization of subject-matter: The recitation was well organized. Plenty of illustrative material. Water analogy of series and parallel connections well shown. Good instruction sheet.
5. Teacher's ability: His ability to hold interest during the recitation period was good. Questions well worded and distributed among the pupils. Enthusiasm injected into the



class. Lesson not in proper sequence with previous day's work as evidenced by unfinished jobs (did not tie up with practical jobs on hand).

6. By using the individual instruction sheets the pupils advanced at own rate of speed. Lesson instruction followed principles of known to unknown, easy to difficult.
7. Good progression charts indicate the completion of definite jobs or processes. Written examination results also recorded. No method of grading ideals, habits of work, or social behavior are employed. The quarterly mark is based solely on written examination.

*Suggestions:* (1) Estimate total cost of supplies for the year and see if it will be within your budget. Figure cost per pupil.

(2) Try to visit Mr. T., the electricity instructor at the South Side School, and find out how he arrives at a mark for his students.

Two days later I again called on Mr. H. and had a conference with him. He was pleased to see me. He told me that he visited the South Side School and that he thinks the instructor there has a good idea in reckoning ratings of pupils. He had already started to make some rating scales whereby the pupil will get credit for his practical work done in the shop and also for his development in attitudes, coöperation, and application. Together we decided to try out the idea of giving a quarterly mark thus: Fifty per cent for written examination and fifty per cent for the following: coöperation, application, neatness and accuracy of work, reliability, initiative, aptitude. (This is in accordance with permission from the principal as learned in conference with him on preceding visit.)

The teacher also saw that the cost of supplies is, under the present system of usage, going to exceed the budget and decided to enforce stricter economy. The conference ended with a feeling of mutual coöperation.

## CONFERENCE 20

This conference occurred about a month after I had begun teaching. My principal had visited me for an hour in the morning and had come back later in the day during a free period.

"You certainly have an interesting subject. I was as interested in the pupil demonstrations as the class. I thought they did well and were well controlled except at the end while you were summing up the main points. Tell me, though, why you planned the lesson as you did."

"I was trying to prove to them through the experiments that air exerts pressure."

"But what relation does that have to aims in general science teaching?"

"That helps them to understand the applications of air pressure in their environment."



"I had the impression that many of your pupils were viewing the demonstrations as entertainment without any thought as to their educational purpose."

"I could have corrected that by asking thought-provoking questions, but I don't know how to phrase them."

"Yes, then your pupils would have seen the relationship between your purpose and the demonstrations. I think your major weakness at present is questioning. It would be better if you had, by skillful questioning, allowed the children to summarize the lesson. With regard to improvement: I think the reading of two or three good books on method will help you. I have also arranged to have you visit Miss Blank during your free hour tomorrow. She is very skillful at questioning and will be more than glad to help you. If we both work at this difficulty, we can overcome it."

### CONFERENCE 21

My principal had observed my efforts to teach *The Deserted Village* by Goldsmith. At the end of the period he indicated that he had enjoyed being in the room and that he would be pleased to talk with me about the observation. We made arrangements for a conference during a vacant period which I was to have later in the same day.

When I reported at his office, the principal began the conversation by asking my opinion with regard to some matter pertaining to administrative routine. In an informal manner he created an atmosphere conducive to perfect confidence and to utmost frankness. Then without wasting too much time, he commented on the fact that he felt while observing me teach that I was leading some of my pupils to a better understanding of the thought of the poem, to an appreciation of some of the scenes and character portraits drawn by the poet, and to desirable sympathy with some of the sentiments expressed.

After he had commented on the strong points of my teaching, I asked him what points of weakness he had observed in the procedure. He replied that since he had been doing most of the talking he would like for me to indicate what I considered the weakest point in my work. I was pleased to have the opportunity of showing that I had been aware of what must have been obvious to any observer: my failure to enlist the interest of all of the boys in the poem. I explained that some of the boys just seemed determined not to like poetry, not to become interested.

"But," the principal argued, "they are interested in *something*. It seems to me that this poem offers opportunity for many points of contact. For instance, Goldsmith's wild picture of the Georgia colony might suggest a project for the boy who is interested in Colonial history. The desertion of the village in this country and the present back-to-the-farm movement might furnish an avenue of interest to the youngster who is alert to some of the present economic trends. The poet's description of the fate of those who left the village for



the crowded cities suggests a comparative study for the boy who is interested in the social problems resulting from the growth of technology in this country. There might be some future public speakers in the class who would like to debate the thesis: 'When wealth accumulates, men decay.' Those interested in art might collect favorite paintings depicting village scenes. Those interested in education and its progress might make a comparative study of Goldsmith's school-master with the one described by Whittier in *Snow Bound* and the one described by Irving in *The Legend of Sleepy Hollow*. They might also contrast the qualifications of those school-masters with the necessary qualifications of teachers of today. The contrast of the traditional one-room school house with our modern school buildings would also be of interest. By the way, I cut out an article from a newspaper not long ago indicating that there are still 48,000 one-room school houses in this country. I shall give to you this afternoon that article and also a pamphlet which I have on the back-to-the-farm movement. Finally, I would suggest that you have those pupils who enjoyed this poem read *Gray's Elegy* and at least the passage in *Evangeline* which describes the desertion of the village."

Needless to say, I left the conference with a better conception of the possibilities that an English teacher has for stimulating interest. I was pleased that the principal had promised to visit my class again within the next few days.

If additional reports of supervisory conferences are desired for study, ten can be found on pages 298-338 of *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, the Eight Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1930.

### BIBLIOGRAPHY

- H. B. Albery and V. T. Thayer, *Supervision in the Secondary School*, pp. 194-215. D. C. Heath and Co., 1931.
- C. J. Anderson, A. S. Barr, and Maybell Bush, *Visiting the Teacher at Work*, pp. 37-55, 222-294. D. Appleton and Co., 1925.
- C. J. Anderson and I. Jewell Simpson, *The Supervision of Rural Schools*, pp. 227-256. D. Appleton and Co., 1932.
- W. D. Armentrout, "Supervision and Educational Aims," *Journal of Educational Method*, 2:272-281, March, 1923.
- A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction*, pp. 158-186. D. Appleton and Co., 1926.
- Ellsworth Collings, *School Supervision in Theory and Practice*, pp. 246-280. Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1927.
- Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, Eighth Yearbook, *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, pp. 298-328.



- H. R. Douglass and C. W. Boardman, *Supervision in Secondary Schools*, pp. 172-191. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934.
- J. M. Hughes, "A Study in High School Supervision," *School Review*, 34:112-122, February, 1926.
- J. M. Hughes and E. O. Melby, *Supervision of Instruction in High School*, pp. 40-45. Public School Publishing Co., 1930.
- C. W. Knudsen, *Evaluation and Improvement of Teaching*, pp. 409-442. Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1932.
- George C. Kyte, *How to Supervise*, pp. 169-210. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930.
- Ruby Minor, "A Case Study of Supervision," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 7:241-254, May, 1921.
- National Education Association, "The Principal as a Supervisor," pp. 320-325, *Research Bulletin VII*, No. 5, November, 1929.
- J. R. Shannon, "An Analysis of High School Supervisory Notes," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 14:9-14, January, 1928.



## CHAPTER XV

---

### TEACHERS MEETINGS

---

**I. Importance and Limitations.**—What mass instruction is for pupils, group conferences are for teachers. Like classroom teaching, they may range from complete dominance and direction by the leader to coöperative planning and activity leading to commonly desired ends. The more prevalent the second method is in the classrooms of a school, the more necessary it will be to use it in meetings of teachers who will be intolerant of a restriction on their free and intelligent participation. As a matter of fact, many teachers who by long years of experience have come to believe in the necessity of absolute control of their own class activities are unhappy and often actually rebellious when the same methods are used by the principal in holding meetings for them. There can scarcely be imagined a more promising means of influencing teachers to approve and to introduce into their own classes better methods of directing learning than for them to experience these methods in meetings in which they participate as learners.

Group conferences are a necessity in schools, whether they be conducted by the older or by the newer method of teaching. Teachers vary widely not only in native ability, experience, and professional competence, but also in their concepts of education, of the special functions of the school in achieving the objectives for which it is maintained, and of the importance of teamwork for greater effectiveness. They vary widely also as a rule in their alertness to grow professionally. Without effective group meetings these differences are likely to persist in such degree that the school fails to achieve what it might and also to become a steadily improved agency for social betterment. By traditional practice teachers are highly individualistic, each one tending to do his own work in his own way, often with disregard for and even with contempt for what his fellows are attempting. What other means are possible to lead



them not only to an appreciation of common obligations and opportunities, but also to active effort to agree on the part that each one should play in the project for which all are employed?

*The individualism of teachers.* Most professions also tend to encourage individualism. The doctor, the lawyer, and the minister of a church as a rule go their own ways. But there is this difference between them and teachers in departmentalized secondary schools: each member of other professions is judged by the results for which he is individually held responsible, while each teacher can be held responsible for only a part, and usually an unmeasurable part, of the education of the youth who have passed through the schools. Each teacher is a member of a team, whether he appreciates it or not, and the team cannot be maximally effective unless every member knows, believes in, and seeks coöperatively and consistently the goals that are desired in common by all. The members of other professions—as doctors or lawyers on a case, ministers on a campaign, or engineers on a project—hold group meetings that should be a model for teachers. They begin with agreement on their aims; they coöperatively plan the means to be used; they assign responsibility; they work individually on their assignments, fully aware that they must produce or the efforts of all the others will be futile. The old idea that a teacher is an individual artist teaching what he pleases as he pleases and responsible only to himself for results has done immeasurable harm to education. In every secondary school today every teacher is a part of a team each member of which has articulating mutual responsibilities. His appreciation of that fact and the effectiveness of his coöperative efforts can be increased chiefly through well-planned and directed group meetings.

*Need of follow-up.* But group meetings of teachers are not in themselves sufficient. Just as they often grow out of individual conferences, they need usually to be followed by personal conferences and other supervisory work with individual teachers to insure that what has been agreed to and planned is actually put into practice. When group meetings are held without follow-up, there is revealed by the principal an ignorant and unjustifiable faith in mass instruction. That is used partly for economy and partly for social reasons, in order that the experiences and judgments of each member of the group will be



made available for all and that each one shall learn to be effective in a coöperative project. But every teacher has learned the necessity of following mass instruction by attention to the needs of individuals. One will need further explanation or justification; another will understand what has been taught, but he will not know what to do next; and a third will know what he ought to do but he will not go forward without encouragement or pressure. Some individuals will have possibilities of progressing in unique directions by using materials not generally available or means that are not promising for all. As with pupils, so with teachers. The group meeting must be supplemented by work with individuals by the principal, who is responsible for the growing effectiveness of each teacher for the greater success of the school.

*General purposes.* Detailed purposes of group meetings of teachers will be presented later. The most important general purposes are, first, to integrate the faculty by a common concept of the meaning of education and of the special functions of the secondary school in achieving a result for which all are responsible; second, to stimulate every teacher to accept his responsibility and steadily to grow in effectiveness; and third, to agree on methods of procedure that promise the best results. A series of group meetings should stimulate and aid teachers individually and coöperatively to help themselves to ascertain their needs, to analyze their problems, and steadily to grow professionally.

*The principal's responsibility.* For the success of group meetings of teachers the principal is primarily and ultimately responsible, though teachers should develop so that they increasingly share in this responsibility. Teachers meetings probably reveal more concerning a principal's educational competence and effectiveness than any other single activity. It is in them that one may learn what philosophy of education he has and is endeavoring to popularize with the teachers; it is there that one may get evidence of a comprehensive program for the school, parts of which are discussed as contributing to the whole; it is there that one may discover the success of a campaign to improve the professional attitude of the faculty growing toward increased participation in efforts to improve themselves so that they can contribute more to the community



by better education of its boys and girls; it is there that one may hear reports of efforts with impersonal evaluations and planning for improvement; and it is there that one sees most clearly evidences of educational leadership. It is not what the principal does in teachers meetings that counts; it is what he gets the teachers to do there in preparation for what they will do afterward; it is the direction and the strength of the stream of growth that gives most evidence of the principal's professional competence. Progress is slow and results are so largely undemonstrable that discouragement often follows the most conscientious efforts. But the stated ends are necessary and there is no other economical means of attaining them. The principal who is truly a professional leader is persistent.

## II. Current Practices and Teachers' Attitudes.—

*Current practices.* There have been numerous reports of studies of the practice of holding teachers meetings, and for the most part they are discouraging to one who realizes their unique possibilities in helping to improve the educational effectiveness of our schools. The studies reveal that in a majority of secondary schools there is no series of teachers meetings carefully planned and regularly held. For the most part such meetings are planned and conducted by the principal for the purpose of presenting directions regarding administrative details. It is conceded that group meetings for administrative purposes are occasionally necessary, especially at the beginning and at the end of each semester, though directions for most routine details can be just as well presented by means of mimeographed notices, which can be read and filed by teachers for later reference. A principal's practice of reading aloud such notices to a meeting of teachers assembled at no small cost of time is indefensible waste, being evidence that the bulletin is not adequately prepared, that the teachers can't read, or that the principal can conceive of nothing more important to bring before them. The general attitude of teachers toward such a practice is voiced by one who wrote, "I get an opportunity to admire my principal's voice as he reads aloud to us the mimeographed notes which we hold in our hands; sometimes I get nervous indigestion at being treated like a moron."

It is unnecessary to repeat about teachers meetings the data that were collected with the sole purpose, presumably, of draw-



ing such conclusions as must be considered. Only a minority are planned far ahead; teachers seldom have a share in the planning or even are informed beforehand what the agenda of a meeting will be. Preparation by teachers is seldom required or expected. Of the 29 topics reported from 26 cities to Wolfner as being considered in teachers meetings, not more than twelve can by generous interpretation be considered supervisory. That there are distinctively different practices in some schools is encouraging to one who perceives the possibilities in teachers meetings and who plans to use them as a potent means of improving the work of a school. Reports of neglect or of bad practices are important merely to challenge a principal to set himself among those who as educational leaders utilize teachers meetings as a potent supervisory agency.

*Teachers' attitudes.* If teachers meetings are dominantly of the kinds reported, there can be little surprise at the attitudes that teachers have been found to hold toward them. If the meetings are good, their attitudes will be good; if they are lacking in helpfulness, why should teachers be expected to look upon them with approval? Of 16,000 teachers in the territory of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools only five per cent included teachers meetings when they were asked by C. O. Davis to list the means of improving teaching efficiency. Sutton reports that nearly four hundred students in a graduate class in education agreed that for the most part teachers "obtain neither ideas nor stimulation from these meetings," and he adds, "It is evident that the polite silence maintained at most teachers meetings is nothing more than a silence which hides boredom, resentment, and indignation." Wolfner concluded that teachers do not think they are deriving enough benefit from teachers meetings chiefly because of lack of purpose, planning, and advance information; they want something more than routine and are eager to accept responsibility. And Kyte concludes, "Since most teachers desire to grow in their work, their attitude toward these meetings must be due in considerable measure to the persons responsible for the character of the meetings." The reported high rating by other teachers of group meetings is simply evidence that they have had experience under principals who appreciated the possibilities and used them effectively for educational leadership.



*What teachers want.* What do teachers want their group meetings to be? There is much reported evidence that they want help on their problems, a wider outlook on education, and direction for professional growth. They want the meetings to be happy and wholesome, exemplifying the best methods of teaching and learning. They want programs based on appreciation of effort and accomplishment rather than on criticism of shortcomings and failures. But in many instances their desires are indefinite; they need to be led to a recognition of their own needs and to the discovery of means of satisfying them. Wolfner's report shows not only a wide difference between what the teachers in 24 cities got in their group meetings and what they think is desirable, but also what may fairly be characterized as highly variable judgment as to the value of what they wish. For example, the three topics ranked highest by the 393 teachers are (1) a discussion of professional problems, (2) a discussion of school policies, and (3) administrative announcements, the last clearly inferior from an educational point of view to the first two; but it should be noted that these three topics were respectively mentioned by only 55, 50, and 47 per cent of the teachers. The conclusion from these data, which probably are fairly representative,<sup>1</sup> is that the principal has a primary responsibility to use group conferences for the purpose of developing appreciation of needs and of professional growth.

**III. Types of Teachers Meetings.**—Teachers meetings may be classified under several different categories. Probably the most helpful for the purpose of the following discussion is to group them as (1) for organization and administration, (2) for the direction of the social life of the school, and (3) for the improvement of instruction. It is obvious that the items under these rubrics will often overlap; administration affects teaching and social activities, the methods of teaching frequently determine administrative details, and no firm line can be drawn between directing the social life of the pupils and the instruction that leads to a better education. But there are advantages, especially when stressing the meeting as an agency of supervision, in considering them separately.

<sup>1</sup> But see L. V. Koos, *The American Secondary School*, pp. 667-672. Ginn and Co., 1927.



*Organization and administration.* It cannot too often be emphasized that a school is organized that it may be administered, and that it is administered that it may be instructed. There is no other reason for organization or for administration; but current educational literature and discussions in professional conventions would seem to indicate that they have importance in and of themselves. There is no significance in how a school is organized unless it directly facilitates the administration and indirectly the education that is to be provided. Many schools have been "reorganized" after long and serious consideration with no subsequent provision for an improved educational program, which of course should have been set up first so that it might indicate what organization is best to make it possible. And administration has become the American schoolman's great fetish. It can be asserted without fear of contradiction that the administration by secondary school principals is the most successful of their activities. It will compare most favorably with the administration by industry, by professional men in their offices, or by housewives in their homes. But it is not an end in itself. There is no virtue in checking attendance, in keeping records, in controlling the passage of pupils through the corridors, and the like unless each activity facilitates the educational program, which should be determined first in order that the kind of administrative program can be indicated.

The point just made that organization and administration are ancillary to education and should not be dominant of it is here emphasized at some length because both should be subordinated in teachers meetings. As previously said, there are occasions, especially at the beginning and at the end of each semester, when an entire group meeting may need to be devoted to discussion or to explanation of such matters. But once they have been determined, routine notices should as a rule be conveyed by mimeographed bulletins that are circulated or by typed notices that are posted. Teachers are quite competent to read and to understand such notices if they are clearly written. When it is necessary to make an administrative announcement in a professional meeting, it should be reserved to the end, when the limits of time will give it deserved brevity. "Just a moment for an announcement" at the beginning of a meeting seldom ends with a moment. Administrators seem obsessed on such



occasions unnecessarily to repeat and to expand, with consequent bad effects on what is to follow.

*The social life of the school.* In one sense the social life of the school is also subordinate and contributory to education; in another sense, it is a part of the broader concept of education itself. In planning its consideration in a teachers meeting decision must be made as to which aspect is to be discussed. Teachers must be socially happy in the group under the conditions in which they work, and meetings, or parts of meetings may therefore properly be devoted to effecting a desired state of mind. Some schools have thought it desirable to begin professional meetings with a social period in which light refreshments are served, while others have decided that this is unnecessary and distracting. Much depends on the attitude with which teachers come to the meeting. One school has reported that it holds each morning a brief meeting of its teachers for its socializing and integrating effects, using something of the psychology underlying the old morning hour of family worship. Others have found that social happiness satisfactorily results when a group is working coöperatively and effectively with mutual respect for commonly desired professional objectives. What should be done for cultivating the social attitudes of a faculty will depend on local conditions and on the characteristics of teachers and principal.

The improvement of the social life of the pupils is a somewhat different challenge. Pupils must be happy, or the morale of the school will become such as to be a constant hindrance to group coöperation and to learning. No person's mind is likely to be open and alert to new ideas or experiences when for any reason whatever he is unhappy or obsessed with complaints against the environment in which he finds himself. Because of this fact teachers meetings from time to time need to be devoted to consideration of the program for making pupils socially happy so that they may best accomplish intellectual growth. But the direction of social behavior and the development of social ideals and attitudes is far more important than that. How people act in their social relations and how they feel toward their fellows, both as individuals and as groups, should be a real concern of education. The whole program, curricular as well as extra-curricular, should be concerned with this. Con-



sequently the faculty meetings devoted to consideration of a better program of social direction merge insensibly into the last type, which is concerned primarily with the improvement of the education by the school.

*The improvement of instruction.* The majority of group meetings of teachers should be devoted to improving the educational program of the school. As will be indicated later in more detail, this involves an agreement on the meaning and objectives of education, the special functions of the school and of each of its departments, the curriculum, the methods of teaching and of learning, and the applications of learning either in school or outside to making life experiences richer and more meaningful. The extent to which these purposes are accepted by both the principal and the faculty determines the whole program for group meetings. If they are not to be devoted to these matters, they may as well be infrequent and brief. Certainly they will seldom command the enthusiasm, the interest, or even the respect of teachers. But if they are devoted to the problems of education and its improvement, the challenge will be unending. Many teachers conscious of a need for better understanding and for more meaningful and effective procedures are already receptive of leadership; most of the others can be made receptive and active workers in group meetings devoted to educational betterment when they are led to appreciation of the need and when they have experienced the beginnings of effective help to growth.

Obviously the major problems are the concern of all teachers alike, and consequently they should be considered by the entire faculty meeting together. Later, when the problems have been realized and broken up into smaller phases that need consideration arrangements may be made for meetings of smaller groups that will report their findings and recommendations for further study and synthesis by the faculty as a whole. Teachers meetings should be by groups homogeneous with respect to needs and interests, and to a certain extent homogeneous with respect to special competence for contributing to the problems to be considered. This means that in addition to meetings of the entire faculty there will be other meetings of committees on problems of narrowed range, of the teachers of a subject or of a particular group of pupils, and of those inexperienced or new



to the school apart from others who have been longer in service. It must not be overlooked, however, that there are distinct advantages for the integration of the large group and also for learning by the weaker or younger members if they sit with the more competent and older teachers; but their growth will result chiefly from active participation in the meetings. Learning results primarily from overt participation rather than from the uncertain unexpressed reactions that occur in the secret mind.

*The superintendent's cabinet.* The primary type of meeting should be those of the superintendent with the principals of all the schools in the system, a type that is inexplicably rare. In such meetings there should be developed an agreement on the meaning of education and on the unified program for the entire system with the special contributory functions of each school more or less clearly indicated. It is here that the superintendent can exercise most effectively his educational leadership; it is here that he can set an example that the principals can be expected to follow, with improvements of their own, in holding meetings with the teachers of each school. If such meetings of superintendent and principals are held, the latter should of course be active participants, proposing questions and coöperatively helping to answer them. If such meetings are not called by the superintendent, the principal who is truly professional and seriously concerned that education may be a unified, integrated process from beginning to end may tactfully propose that they be held, or he may pursue the uneconomic and less promising procedure of initiating personal conferences with his superior officer. The failure of superintendents, who are usually harried by the details of business administration, to develop with the principals a comprehensive program of education for the whole system is the chief cause of the inarticulations between schools so frequently noted in criticism and as yet so inadequately remedied. Also it may be suspected that it is the reason why principals have been so little concerned to plan and use meetings of teachers to plan the improvement of education in individual schools. If no program is developed for the system as a whole, the truly professional principal will have an added obligation to work out for himself with the aid of the teachers the best solutions possible from a point of view more restricted than it ought to be.



*The principal's cabinet.* Similarly, if there are heads of departments the principal should hold frequent meetings with them to make a preliminary educational program for the school and to insure that each one is contributing to its development and to its being carried out by the teachers under his direction. Some principals, says District Superintendent Tildsley in his report of 1932 to the superintendent of schools in New York, "are seemingly content to practically abdicate and to place 'sovereignty of commission,' that is, in the hands of the grade advisor or in the hands of the chairman, holding . . . that working through these [undirected] agencies . . . he can build up in the entire body of teachers a unifying and animating purpose." If the principal does so abdicate, there can be no coördinated program for the whole school and no consequent unity in its work; the heads of departments will work at cross-purposes or at best without effective and economical coöperation, and often they will tend to imitate their superior officer, confining their activities to administrative routine and leaving each teacher to do what seems right to his narrow vision.

Quite different is the practice in many other schools. In them the principal holds regular meetings at a previously approved time with all heads of departments, who constitute the cabinet. In these meetings not only is the broad program for the school as a whole tentatively worked out as a part of the larger educational program for the entire community, but the heads with their more intimate knowledge of the practices, needs, and difficulties of the teachers report new problems that demand attention. Some of these problems are solved by the cabinet; others after discussion and clearer formulation are referred to the whole faculty or to groups that are especially concerned or especially competent. The department heads as liason officers between the principal and the teachers are an effective economy in extending the influence of the former and in seeing that predetermined policies are carried out in the classrooms. By active participation in the proceedings of the cabinet each head is stimulated to accept fully his responsibility and to develop a loyalty to the educational program of the school as a whole. As he grows professionally, the strength of the school grows. In the cabinet meetings the principal will be the leader, but he will not dogmatize. He will without cessation endeavor



to focus attention on the whole educational program, to break down departmental complacency in isolation, and continuously, though subtly, to keep to the front the idea that the whole is greater and more important than any of its parts. And he will set a pattern for conducting meetings that should influence the heads when they conduct meetings of the teachers in the separate departments.

*The principal's meetings with teachers.* In the majority of high schools there are no heads of departments and in consequence all supervisory meetings will be held by the principal himself. Even in small schools the principal may well, however, profit from forming a cabinet of the more professionally minded teachers to plan other meetings and to do the preliminary work necessary to make them more immediately interesting and profitable. But whether the school is large or small, the principal should never abandon the practice of coming into as frequent and as close supervisory contact as possible with all of the teachers. "The experience of the race seems to prove," says Tildsley, "that ideas become less vivid with transmission or are changed as they reflect the personalities which transmit them. . . . From age to age vital education has been a one-to-one process, a vivid personality focusing upon another single personality." No principal devoted to professional leadership of the school entrusted to his responsibility will fail to use, continually and as effectively as he can, teachers meetings as one of the two most important means of supervision. The other important means is individual conferences. The meetings will sometimes be of all the teachers, sometimes of smaller groups with special interests or needs. Substitute teachers and teachers in training should by all means attend in order that they may be got ready for intelligently taking up such duties as may fall to them. The meetings may be of various types—discussion, reports, demonstration or lecture, all of which will be discussed elsewhere; but each will be carefully planned as a part of a large program of supervision, they will be regularly held, and the principal will be active, directly or indirectly, in every one of them.

*Department meetings.* If departmental meetings are held, the head will represent the principal, transmitting for consideration an appropriate part of the program first developed in a



tentative form by the cabinet. In essence it will not be different from the general meeting, but it will be more intimate and will usually afford more freedom and opportunity for active participation by each and every teacher because of the smaller numbers. "They serve," says Principal Hein of the James Monroe High School in New York, "to bring out latent powers and abilities of some of our teachers and to give them inspiration for their jobs and for their profession." Several studies have reported that teachers have expressed a decided preference for departmental to entire faculty meetings, probably because the former are as a rule more directly concerned with education and with the problems of which they are most conscious as affecting their needs and daily practices. This preference indicates that the principal should attempt to make the meetings of the larger group similarly attractive by considering problems of pragmatic value always leading to an influence on what the teachers do in their classrooms.

*Teachers meeting with parents and pupils.* Another type of meeting which has great possibilities, though it has been little used, is a meeting of teachers with invited parents or other representatives of the public or with the more independently thoughtful pupils for the purpose of considering how the educational program of the school can be made better. Ordinarily not a great many original ideas of worth can be expected; but there is in such meetings a real opportunity for giving an understanding of the educational program and for gaining consequent support of it. There are also potent possibilities of receiving helpful criticisms and suggestions from those who have a different point of view and perhaps other ideas of the needs of both pupils and the community. If such meetings are held, the teachers should attend chiefly with an attitude of hospitality of everything that may be said. Inevitably many unsound opinions will be expressed and many proposals already considered by the faculty will be made; but any new idea or any new emphasis should be profitable, at least for further consideration. The advantage of getting understanding of the program by parents, public, and pupils is by no means of negligible importance. They can be of tremendous help in spreading to others appreciation which may lead to much needed coöperation and support.



**IV. Purposes of Teachers Meetings.**—"The ultimate end of supervision," as well expressed in *The Principal as a Supervisor*<sup>1</sup> "is the development in each teacher of the power of efficient self-direction." This power can come only from an understanding of general principles of education and a knowledge of how to apply them to specific situations. Probably most teachers are impatient with philosophic principles, so many of which are remotely abstract and inapplicable so far as they can see to immediate or even to ultimate help. They need to be led to consideration and understanding of the principles that do have bearing on a school's policies and procedures and given the most skillful training in applying them, through both group and individual effort, to the improvement of the work of the school. Specific aids, which many want and to which nearly all are receptive, are good as far as they go; they are usually of immediate help in a troublesome situation, but that situation seldom occurs again in exactly the same form. The surest way of finding a solution for a new problem is not to draw solely on a composite of old experiences, but to possess sound fundamental principles and to know how to apply them. The principal must say of his group meetings what Christian Kold, a Danish schoolmaster, said of his school, "If you will come into my school I will wind you up so that you will never run down." Walt Whitman expressed the same idea in *A Song of Myself*:

Not I, nor any one else can travel that road for you.

You must travel it for yourself.

You are asking me questions and I hear you.

I answer that I cannot answer, you must find out for yourself.

The purpose of teachers meetings is not merely the exposition of fundamental principles leading to definite broad policies; it is also to make teachers conscious of their needs and difficulties, which are often only vaguely realized, and to help them to make such analysis into smaller units that these may be attacked with hope of success. To give this help requires skill, patience, confidence, and long-continued effort. It is easier to help a teacher directly in a specific difficulty than it is to teach him to help himself. But although the tedious process often becomes discouraging because of the slow manifestations of success,

<sup>1</sup> *National Education Association Research Bulletin*, Vol. VII, No. 5.



the results are cumulative. Each achievement makes the next one easier, and the teacher who has learned even in part to think out his own solutions of problems is a potent influence on the receptivity of others to similar aid.

That the purposes of teachers meetings should be clearly in the mind of the principal goes without saying. That he should make the purposes, both immediate and remote, clear and of convincing worth to the teachers seems from observation of practice to require emphasis. Teachers cannot be expected to coöperate with wholehearted interest and with consequent effectiveness unless they not only know the purpose of the meetings to which they are called, but also unless they believe in their worthwhileness. The desired appreciation of the purposes that the principal has in mind will seldom result merely from his statement; it must come from actual realization by the teachers of value as it is sought with indicated application to the work of the school. Whenever the principal can elicit from the teachers expression of a desire to understand better some phase of the school program or the principles on which it is based, he should incorporate the topic quickly into the agenda. The best motivation comes when one's own problem is to be discussed.

Among the more important purposes of supervisory meetings of teachers, especially of the whole group, are the following. From the list every principal should be able to find a number that he feels competent to attempt; and the list as a whole will indicate that the supervisory meeting has an importance and possibilities not generally recognized in practice.

1. *To integrate the faculty and to coördinate their work.* As before remarked, teachers are by tradition and by the nature of their normal assignments individualists; they tend to teach their subjects to their pupils with little understanding of what their colleagues are attempting and with less appreciation of the purposes of the school as a whole. "The means of providing education," wrote L. W. Smith years ago, "must necessarily be thoroughly integrated; otherwise there is enormous waste of efficiency and effort." And the most economical method of securing the desired integration is through the group meeting in which the general program for the school can be developed and justified by an understanding of the basic principles of



education. Only as this kind of integration exists can a principal hope to secure the coördination of effort necessary to make a school effective. There is some integration possible as a result of what is given to teachers by way of explanation; but the surer and more lasting integration results from what they give. Therefore the process must be a coöperative effort to work out together understanding of principles that are basic to all thinking about a comprehensive and sound program.

2. *To insure that all teachers realize the problems and the challenge of the school.* Every teacher in some degree knows the problems that confront him in his classroom, but relatively few have an understanding of the problems of the school as a whole. Some of these will become apparent as individual problems are expressed and pooled; others the principal with his wider outlook and broader responsibility must either reveal or lead the teachers to discover for themselves. Only as the larger problems are understood can the teachers share in proposing solutions and with intelligent interest contribute through their teaching to the application of the program proposed for more effective work. The challenge of the school is larger than the challenge of any special subject, and the teaching of subjects cannot make the maximum contribution to achieving the possibilities of the school until the larger challenges are realized. One important challenge, by way of illustration, that ought to be understood and accepted is how to make the school return dividends on the public investment by way of boys and girls made better able and better disposed to make the community a better place in which to live and in which to make a living.<sup>1</sup> The implied principle may never have been heard of or it may have been accepted only in theory, and "good" teachers of English or science or art are likely to ignore the challenge in their own work unless stimulated by the teachers meeting and subsequent individual supervision.

3. *To develop morale.* Morale or *esprit de corps* is difficult to define, but its presence or absence is easy to detect. Leonard D. White defines it<sup>2</sup> as "a state of mind in which men and women voluntarily seek to develop and apply their full powers to the task at which they are engaged, by reason of the intellectual

<sup>1</sup> For an elaboration of this idea see Thomas H. Briggs, *The Great Investment*. Harvard University Press, 1930.

<sup>2</sup> *International Journal of Ethics*, 39:257-268, April, 1929.



or moral satisfaction which they derive both from their own self-realization, their achievements in their chosen field, and their pride in the service.” And G. Stanley Hall wrote in *Morale*:<sup>1</sup>

When we awake after a sound and refreshing sleep with every organ in tune and at concert pitch, and thank whatever gods we believe in that we are alive, well, young, strong, buoyant, and exuberant, with animal spirits at the top-notch; when we are full of joy that the world is so beautiful, that we can love our dear ones, and can throw ourselves into our work with zest and abandon because we like it; when our problems seem not insoluble and the obstacles in our path not insuperable; when we feel that our enemies are either beaten or placated; in a word, when we face reality gladly and with a stout heart even if it is grim and painful, and never doubt that it is good, that even if we are defeated and overwhelmed in a good cause all is not lost; when we feel that we live for something that we would die for if need be—this is *Morale*.

*Morale* comes primarily from understanding—of the fundamental principles of education, the special functions of the secondary school, the program and policies of the institution in which one works, and the part that one is expected to play in helping to achievement—not only an understanding but a devoted belief in them and a determination to contribute one’s best to their realization. It comes also from such an understanding of oneself, of one’s principal, and of one’s colleagues that there are mutual respect and confidence that each one can be relied on to play his part in the coöperative enterprise. A team, whether it be for football or for education, that does not have an understanding of the game and mutual respect, fellowship, loyalty, and confidence can never be a success. The highest morale comes from the satisfaction of coöperatively carrying to success a program that individuals with mutual confidence for each other have worked out together.

4. *To develop general principles of education and to secure a sincere expression of approval of them.* The principles of education that were learned in professional courses often seem remote and abstract when one faces the problems of the actual job. No principle is of any value unless it directs one as to what he should do to perform better his assignment. A school is an ineffective and wasteful agency, too, if the members of its

<sup>1</sup> Page 17.



faculty do not have a large agreement on the meaning of education and on the ends that it should achieve. There is only one means by which the desired understanding and agreement can economically be brought about, and that means is the group meeting to which each one contributes not only his openminded receptivity of what others say, but also his active efforts to develop a workable definition. It is difficult enough, as thousands of philosophers have found out, to make an acceptable definition, one that is clear, sound, comprehensive, adaptable, and directive of what one should do—not only directive but also cogent to action. But a definition that conforms to these requirements is necessary for every faculty, and it should be developed in the group meetings. To it every teacher should give his open and oral approval, the public commitment that implies a promise to seek its use in planning all one's work. This public profession of faith will save much time in later individual conferences on lesson planning and on procedures.

Let us launch ourselves, says William James, with as strong and decided initiative as possible. Accumulate all the possible circumstances which shall reinforce the right motives; put yourself assiduously in conditions that encourage the new way; make engagements incompatible with the old; take a public pledge, if the case allows; in short, envelop your resolution with every aid you know. This will give your new beginning such a momentum that the temptation to break down will not occur as soon as it otherwise might; and every day during which a breakdown is postponed adds to the chances of its not occurring at all.<sup>1</sup>

5. *To plan for the application of general principles in all teaching.* After a definition of education and basic principles have been agreed on, the group will need to work together to discover what their application to practice indicates. It is extremely difficult for most people to translate theory into practice, and traditional subject-matter and methods are likely to be passively impregnable unless they are attacked openly, coöperatively, and continually by a faculty fortified by faith in fundamental principles. The group will have much more courage, even audacity, than any individual is likely to have; its members will stimulate each other to continued effort toward application, even if it means radical change in practice. Here is an oppor-

<sup>1</sup> William James, *Psychology*, Vol. I, p. 123.



tunity for the principal to lead his teachers, to stimulate their efforts to attempt what their agreements indicate ought to be done, and to keep them at the job. Some teachers will have from experience of their own or from observation illustrations of how the definition or concept should be applied; others will be fertile in invention. All proposals will be judged by the joint wisdom of the group, some approved with or without modification, and others rejected because they cannot be substantiated or because they are impracticable in the school situation. What is approved, even in part, should be given a trial, and the results should be reported to a later group meeting for further consideration and stimulus. Enough can be started by this one type of procedure to keep the supervisor and the whole faculty busy with professional growth for weeks to come. As a matter of fact, this phase of growth will never be done.

6. *To resolve the issues of secondary education and to ascertain the implications of the preferred alternatives.* There are in the field of secondary education a number of unresolved issues, conflicts of theory with theory or of theory with practice, of which every faculty ought to be aware and concerning which they should take a positive stand in order that they may share in making a sound and coherent program for the school. These issues are presented and discussed at length in the report of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education.<sup>1</sup> This volume might well be made the subject for discussion in a number of teachers meetings, in which after justification of the preferred alternative of each issue the faculty should seek to agree on the implications for the general program and also, to a lesser extent, for modifications of the procedures of each teacher in his classes.

7. *To clarify the special functions of the school and to plan that they may be skillfully achieved.* Largely because of the way our schools developed and because of a common lack of a well-articulated plan for the education in a community, the special functions of secondary education have received so little attention that neither administrators nor teachers are generally aware of what they are. It stands to reason that if a faculty is to make the institution effective they should be aware of the special functions that it is supposed to achieve. These functions

<sup>1</sup> "The Issues of Secondary Education," *Bulletin No. 59*, January, 1936, Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago.



are presented and discussed in another report of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education.<sup>1</sup> This volume should also be studied by every secondary school faculty, and after each function is thoroughly understood, with or without modification, the principal should lead the teachers to ascertain what changes in the school organization and administration, in the social life of the pupils, in the curriculum, and in the methods of teaching and learning are indicated as necessary. Emphasis should first be placed on what changes are desirable, and only then should be raised the question of what is possible under the conditions that prevail in any local situation. Only as the ideal is clearly perceived and approved is a faculty likely to be ingenious and courageous in attempting to make modifications of traditional practices.

8. *To get all teachers to work together to achieve important objectives of the school.* Once objectives have been understood and approved, the challenge is clear to seek to achieve them. Individual teachers are likely to be timorous and reluctant to attack by themselves a problem so great as the modification of procedures in light of general principles, and indeed many of the desired changes are beyond the power of any individual teacher to make. They are, however, the concern of the faculty as a whole, and the professional leader should make the teachers feel and assume the responsibility. It is in the general teachers meeting, of course, that plans for what should be done can best be worked out. They should not be imposed by the principal, and preferably should not even be proposed by him. If the suggestions come from members of the group, they not only begin with some material support but they also contribute to the professional growth of the proponents. This growth is furthered by the open and full discussion that follows, a discussion that is much more likely to be free than if the principal had made the proposal. All this does not mean, of course, that the principal should be hesitant to suggest plans for achieving the objectives already agreed on. But there are many ways of making suggestions, some direct and some indirect. A private discussion with an individual teacher will often so open his mind and stimulate his thinking that he will have proposals of his own to make.

<sup>1</sup> *Bulletin No. 64* of the Department of Secondary School Principals, January, 1937.



That he thinks them entirely original increases his strength and does no harm. The essential thing is to get before the faculty for frank discussion proposals to make the approved objectives more than mere theory. After agreement on what should be done and the joint working out of at least some of the details, the principal will have plenty to do to see by subsequent supervision that the new plans are put into effect.

9. *To gain understanding of new movements and to plan to use what is proved good.* In the field of secondary education there is a constant succession of proposals for new practices. Sometimes they are really novel, but often they are merely old practices under new names or attempts to put into practice principles that have long been accepted only as theory. There are reports of new types of organization, of new features of administration, of new devices for studying the pupil personnel and for guiding individuals socially, educationally, and vocationally, of new curriculum units, of new plans for organizing the materials of instruction, of new methods of teaching, and of new means of testing learning, retention, and application. Concerning those that seem important and especially concerning those that give promise of contributing to the betterment of the local school every faculty should become informed. The information can best be got probably by studies or observations made by individuals or by small groups who are most likely to be interested, and by them reported to the faculty in group meetings for consideration. Such a procedure should lead at least to openminded alertness and to appreciation of the fact that others conscious of possibilities of improving conventional practices are active to invent means. Such appreciation may stimulate some members of the group to similar inventiveness and to courage to try out what they or others think promising of better practices. What seems most promising the faculty should as a group plan to make effective, and then they will be interested to hear reports of the success or failure of the plans when put into execution.

10. *To renew interest and faith in old doctrines and practices that are good, leading the teachers to realize why they are good.* So much emphasis has been put during this generation by educational leaders on new procedures in education that frequently teachers who are conscientious and effective in their own



methods become both disheartened and dismayed. There is much good in the old; a large part of it, indeed, has never been attacked by any sensible person. To prevent discouragement and to conserve the good in conventional practices is a thoroughly sound purpose of an occasional group meeting of teachers. This is one type of meeting in which the principal may well do most of the talking, at least in the beginning. He should report the best practices that he has observed in the school and show by reference to the theory previously approved why they are sound and praiseworthy. Thus he not only can put new heart into some of the teachers by renewing their confidence in what they do, but he strengthens their faith in theory and enables them because of self-respect to be more receptive of proposals for change of what cannot be justified with complete convincingness. This purpose of teachers meetings is unfortunately less often sought than it should be.

11. *To report on unusually successful and promising practices and devices, leading to wider use.* In his observations and in his conferences with individual teachers every principal should be alert to find what is unusually good. This he will recognize and credit to the teacher who is responsible, of course, and will satisfy himself by both theory and measurement that the practice is sound and the results good. And equally of course, as will be emphasized presently, he will seek by praise and by advice to stimulate the teacher to still further strength in the particular practice in which success has already been shown. But that is not sufficient. He should also report, or have reported, to the faculty the unusually successful and promising procedures so that others may profit from the knowledge and be stimulated to try them. It should be recognized, however, that every teacher has his own best ways of teaching, and these should not be disturbed by forcing him to attempt to follow the methods of one of his colleagues. Usually it will be best for the principal to report what he considers meritorious practice, and after justification of it by theory and results he may well call on the responsible teacher for exposition of the details, about which he may be questioned by others.

12. *To reward merit by recognition and praise.* This is closely related to the foregoing purpose, but not identical with it. Every teacher does something, perhaps many things, better



than any of his colleagues, and everyone likes recognition of what he does well. It strengthens his confidence and it stimulates him to further effort. When praise is to be given it should be wholehearted and generous, and not tempered by mention of defects or even of how weaknesses could be improved. Whatever suggestions of that nature the principal has he should give in private conference. When the principal discovers unusually meritorious practice of any kind, it is not only just but it is also good supervisory policy for him to give it recognition and praise, and the best place for the accolade is before the other teachers who have professional competence for appreciation. The effect is good on the entire faculty, too, for each one will be stimulated to show what he can do with conspicuous success so that he will later merit recognition and praise. This purpose will be achieved usually by incidental mention, but occasionally such mention will lead on to discussion and to planning for the betterment and the extension to others of the good practice.

13. *To capitalize skills and enthusiasms.* Whatever unusual skills and whatever enthusiasms exist in a teaching corps should be capitalized to the fullest extent, for by them a school is known to be successful. The teacher who has either or both, and the latter is ordinarily a concomitant of the first, will of course be encouraged to apply them still further in his classwork, but he should also manifest them before the other teachers. This he may do by a demonstration lesson, which he will explain and defend, or by leading a group meeting on some topic in which he is competent. Incidentally it may be noted that one of the best ways to insure the support of a strong teacher for some new project is to have him after adequate preparation make a report on it to the entire interested group. Exercise increases strength, and increased strengths in the teaching corps are what the supervisor is seeking. When one teacher has done a good job for his fellows, it is easier to get others to attempt a similar thing. By the example they have a stimulus to manifest their own competence and a standard to reach or to surpass. The group meeting becomes truly a teachers meeting when individuals manifest their competence to run it.

14. *To secure by all teachers understanding and appreciation of the special functions and contributions of each subject.* It is seldom that the faculty as a whole know what the teachers



of any subject attempt to achieve or in any detail the means that they use. Not infrequently because of this ignorance there exists skepticism or even contempt, especially for the newer subjects of the curriculum and for some of the oldest ones, and when such ignorance and such attitudes exist there can be no unity of the school and no satisfactory morale. An important purpose of teachers meetings is to inform the faculty as to what each subject as it is taught attempts to contribute to the cultural or vocational education of the pupils and how its objectives conform to the general principles that have been approved, and how they articulate with the special functions of the school. A number of meetings should be devoted to this purpose, the teachers of each department preparing and presenting reports showing what are its ultimate and its immediate objectives, how they are justified by the basic principles already approved by the faculty, what they promise to contribute to the special functions of secondary education, and what are the more important means used to achieve these ends. The general plan of the reports should be made by the faculty as a whole so as to insure that they get what they want. Each report will, of course, be followed by questions, comparisons, and discussion, which the leader must tactfully keep from becoming offensive, a result possible because of rivalry as well as of misunderstandings. It will be found that such reports will get progressively better as each group profits from discussion of those already presented and discussed.

The values of attempting to achieve this purpose are several. In the first place, it forces each departmental group to clarify its own composite mind with regard to objectives that can be defended from attack by other competent school people with another point of view. It is one thing to repeat parrot-like statements of objectives that a sympathetic group would never question, and quite another to prepare a list that can be defended against intelligent criticisms. In the second place, it should result in a better understanding of relative values. Real appreciation of the importance of one's own work is possible only when it is seen alongside the other units of the curricular program. This sometimes tempers the discouragement that often results when comparison is made only with an ideal. In the third place, it makes each department group more conscious



of its obligation to contribute to the general objectives of education as a whole and to the special functions of the school. In the fourth place, it leads to such understandings as are necessary to build up morale and coöperative work. And, finally, it may lead to general appreciation of needs of the school program not adequately satisfied and consequently to curriculum revision or enrichment.

15. *To get help from the group meeting as a clearing house.* The principal will know much about the school and its problems, probably more than any other individual, but he cannot know everything. By inviting the teachers in group meetings to state the problems of the school as they see them and in every discussion freely to contribute concrete illustrations of good and of poor practices, he will enlarge his own range of information as well as that of the faculty. From the statements by teachers of problems and difficulties there will come suggestions for future programs in group meetings and in individual conferences; from the other contributions everyone's store of concrete illustrations of principles is steadily increased. These stores should be constantly drawn upon in subsequent discussions to make the abstract truly meaningful.

16. *To get and to give understanding of local conditions and to plan in the light of them.* Everyone knows something of local conditions, but the composite knowledge is greater than that of any individual teacher. The teachers meeting furnishes an opportunity to pool such knowledge as is pertinent to any special problems, and the morale of the faculty should be such that the freest contribution of information should be possible without offense. It is easier to cumulate knowledge of local conditions than it is to appreciate their significance. The tendency of most teachers is to think of them as altogether, or at least as largely, restrictive, but as a matter of fact they should for the most part be considered as challenges to invent a program consistent with them or to take advantage of the possibilities under them. When they are restrictive, they may on occasion by skilled planning and the proper procedures be changed; often they can be ignored, for seldom are they as inhibiting as they first seem; and more often still they can be opposed by other existing conditions that indicate or permit what seems a sound course of action. Emphasis as a rule, however, should be placed on



devising a program which is consistent with conditions under which the school has to work and which is at the same time educationally sound and promising.

17. *To exchange information leading to a better understanding of individual pupils.* Increasingly personnel records have improved so that they carry many data about individual pupils, but even in the best systems there is usually much additional information about them that it is helpful for teachers to know. Of course the grade adviser or the counselor gradually accumulates much of this information, most of which is not recorded in writing and so is not available to those who could use it to best advantage. One can't teach a boy well unless he knows him thoroughly, and each teacher's knowledge is for various reasons different from that of any other teacher. Consequently it is profitable from time to time, perhaps once or twice a semester, for the teachers of each group to sit down and frankly to exchange pertinent information about every boy and girl. The group should be careful of three things: first, that what is reported is not only correct but is also representative of the real characteristics of the pupil; second, that reports subsequent to the first ones are not chiefly echoes, emphasizing the same characteristics rather than contributing to a complete and rounded portraiture; and, third, that attention is steadily focused on what can be done for the pupil's betterment. There will be no great profit if pupil A is generally characterized as studious, industrious, and well behaved or if pupil B is by agreement dull, lazy, and a disturber. The terms must be analyzed and illustrated concretely with specific instances, and the question continually asked as to the significance to help the pupil apply his talents and overcome his defects. Achievement by a pupil of success in anything makes easier the attempt to remedy his deficiencies.

18. *To prepare to inform and unify the pupils and the community regarding the program and the policies of the school.* It is assumed that the teachers through participation in formulating the program and the policies of the school already understand them. They should also be made conscious of the advantages of the program and the policies being known by both the pupils and the community at large, who can be led to have interest even if they do not already possess it. There are many means of pub-



licity: addresses before various groups, like the parent-teacher association, service clubs, and neighborhood meetings; articles in the public press; exhibitions; and entertainment of visitors, especially at "open house" on stated evenings when working men as well as women can attend; and personal contacts with individuals. All of these are frequently used.

Another means not so commonly used but highly important from an educative point of view and fruitful of possibilities is publicity through the teachers and their pupils. The information that is thought desirable for the pupils and the public to have partly for their general information and partly to influence them toward understanding and sympathetic support can be selected and carefully arranged for the best results by the teachers working as a group or through a committee the members of which have a special aptitude for that sort of thing. Then after the plan has had approval in a group meeting the teachers carry it out in their home rooms, informing and convincing the pupils and preparing them to inform their parents and neighbors. The effect on the teachers is an increased concern for the welfare of the school as a whole. The plan is educative to the pupils, in that they have a better understanding of their school that leads to sympathetic coöperation for the program and also in that they have a valuable experience in informing their elders and in promoting with them a campaign for the common good. The accuracy and effectiveness of the information that the pupils carry to the adults of the community depend largely on the preparation made in the faculty meeting and on the skill with which the home-room teachers have carried out their assignments; but as a result the public will have more information and more interest than they are likely to get in the same time by any other means. If they are led to ask questions, to make criticisms, and to seek further more accurate or more full information, so much the better.

19. *To encourage and to direct professional growth by teachers.* Teachers who do not grow become gradually liabilities to a school, partly by their decreased efficiency, partly by their bad influence on colleagues who otherwise might be more actively ambitious, and partly because of the bad impression they give the public of the teaching profession. All supervision is for the purpose of stimulating growth; the teachers meeting is an



effective means of revealing its necessity and the various possibilities for effecting it. As a matter of fact, a well-planned and well-conducted series of teachers meetings affords the best possible opportunity for professional growth, for there the vision is extended, basic principles are laid down, and various important problems are solved under the influence of these principles. The principal should be constantly on the alert to lead teachers to appreciate the necessity of steady and constant professional growth, and this he can do best by challenges and by opportunities to apply increased power.

But there are numerous other means also: private reading and study, study in extension or summer schools, visiting and observing the work of other teachers, attending conventions, work individually or in small groups on selected problems or projects, and the like. With his wider knowledge of possibilities and greater opportunities for learning about them, the principal should continually, in the group meetings as well as in individual conferences, reveal the means of growth in needed directions and as far as possible direct it so as to accomplish the maximum good. Many an ambitious teacher could have been saved much in attending inappropriate or worthless summer school classes or in visiting schools which had nothing important to show had his principal been active wisely to direct his efforts to grow. The principal should furnish direction until it is no longer needed.

20. *To reveal teaching difficulties, especially of teachers undertaking new types of work, and to plan for overcoming them.* It is wise economy for teachers most of the time to know what special difficulties lie ahead of them so that they may make the necessary preparation to avoid them or to overcome them. It is far better to achieve some degree of success the first time than it is to fail and then attempt to find better practice. Knowledge of rocks ahead is for most teachers a better motivation than shipwreck would be. Because of his experience or his imagination the principal can often anticipate difficulties or by calling on older teachers he can learn what they are likely to be, and so he is in a position materially to help teachers new to the school or those who are undertaking unaccustomed responsibilities or pioneering with new types of projects. In small group meetings of such teachers he can state the difficulties



ahead and help to plan how they can be minimized or avoided; or in larger groups all the teachers together can attempt to give the same help. Such help in anticipation will make the teachers concerned much more receptive of later supervision.

21. *To initiate other types of supervision and to make the teachers receptive to them.* Supervision needs motivation just as much as do other types of teaching, and the group teachers meeting is one, but not the only, means of leading teachers to a realization of the need for it and of the competence of the principal to give it. Whenever, as a result of discussion of principles and of problems, plans are made for improving school practices, many if not most teachers will want further help in carrying them into effect. Whenever difficulties are encountered the sense of need of help is intensified. It is neither hard nor in any sense embarrassing for the principal in group meetings to make teachers aware of the need of all help that they can get to carry out a new program which they have approved; and when he does this he has made himself several new jobs if he has previously manifested his ability and his willingness to render coöperative help. Sometimes he will propose a project or an experiment, or again the faculty will take the initiative in a proposal that obviously can be carried to success better by his expert assistance. He should be on guard, however, not to take over entirely the planning, to say nothing of the execution. His constant purpose is to help the teachers to grow so that they may be increasingly competent to carry on by themselves. As the staff is strong, the principal's energies are released for other types of stimulus and help. He need never fear that his supervisory job will be done. As one task is completed a dozen more will challenge.

22. *To acquaint teachers with the purposes of the individual supervisory conferences.* Teachers should be acquainted with the purposes of all phases of supervision, but especially with those of the individual conference, of which many because of previous unpleasant experience are afraid. Of course after the principal has manifested in one or more conferences that he is sympathetic, understanding, and constructively helpful, no explanation is necessary, and no protestations of good intentions will overcome the bad effects of merely destructive criticism and the consequent apprehension. But in the beginning,



before the better teaching of profitable experience, the principal may very properly explain that from time to time—not necessarily after every observation—he plans to talk with each teacher individually about his work, to understand him better, and to help him to grow into still greater effectiveness. It may be wise to say also that in the first conferences he holds he will make no mention of observed weaknesses, that those will be discussed only at the initiation of the teacher who calls for help either there or in conferences asked for. Later, as has been said elsewhere, after he has proved that his policy is a constructive one, he can freely discuss ways of overcoming difficulties and of strengthening weaknesses. But that is far different in intention and in effects from merely indicating what the defects of teaching are. Such explanation may very properly be made in the general teachers meeting before beginning a program of individual conferences. It is more economical to make the explanation to all than to repeat it as many times as there are teachers.

23. *To exemplify the principles of good teaching.* It need not be assumed that the principal is the best teacher in the school, but he should not be the worst one either. He should be ashamed to use in a teachers meeting methods that are below the average, and certainly he should make every effort to plan so that the meeting will exemplify the best procedures known and approved. To do this he will need to plan much more carefully than any teacher is expected to plan, for his audience is more mature and more competent to appreciate and to criticize. The methods that the principal attempts to use will of necessity be somewhat adapted to the professional advancement of the staff, but he will always keep in mind a gradual approach to the highest ideals that he knows. If the general practice of the school is a series of short recitations on matter assigned to be learned, he may begin by motivating the teachers' study by an admirable assignment growing out of their appreciation of their own needs, and he may continue by encouraging active participation in the discussion of an appreciated principle or problem.

Gradually he will lead them to share in the planning of the meetings and to take over a larger and larger share in conducting them. Occasionally he ought to be courageous enough to invite discussion of the way the meetings are conducted in light of the principles of good teaching with a view to having the methods



used there influence the methods used by the teachers in their own classrooms. The criticisms that the teachers make will indicate their readiness to assimilate supervisory suggestions for the betterment of their own procedures. Readiness is a great aid to hospitable receptivity. Approval of good procedures with the teachers is likely to precede, often by a long interval, willingness even to attempt the more liberal and sensible methods with their own pupils. But a continual development of good methods in teachers meetings will gradually wear away the most stubborn opposition to their own change. By and by one becomes ashamed to enjoy what he is not willing to let others enjoy, especially when there are evidences that it is not only enjoyable but also superior in effectiveness.

24. *To impart genuine inspiration.* The pleasure derived from entertainment, especially when it is associated with someone's contagious enthusiasm, is often confused with true inspiration. The latter comes only when one perceives a vision of a convincing ideal and understands how he may be a potent agent in helping to achieve it in reality. It always results in a determination to do something, individually or more probably as a member of a coöperative group all sharing the same devotion. Inspiration is evanescent unless the ideal is kept clearly in mind, persisting without diminished conviction of desirability, and unless one's efforts to contribute to its achievements are followed by obvious evidences of success. Consequently it is not sufficient for a principal merely to attempt to give inspiration in group meetings. Even if he is capable of imparting a degree of contagious enthusiasm, he must realize that it is likely to be of brief duration, subsequently renewable for decreasing periods of extent. He must share his vision of what ought to be and of what may be in education, building it up by contributions from the imaginations of his fellow workers, and he must keep it steadily before the teachers like a pillar of cloud by day and a pillar of fire by night. Not only that, he must work out coöperatively with the teachers means of making it real in the school, share with them the constantly renewed efforts to achieve it, and give encouragement by revealing evidences of progress toward the desired goal. The first zeal, highly impregnated with emotional devotion, seldom persists with its initial enthusiasm; at the best it is succeeded by a quieter



but more lasting devotion and effort toward attainment. If a principal can bring this into any number of the teachers, he will have manifested evidence of a high degree of leadership. With this anything is possible.

**V. Responsibility of the Principal and Teacher Participation.—**

*Responsibility of the principal for teachers meetings.* It is obvious that if the purposes of teachers meetings are to be even measurably achieved there must be leadership. This leadership must be furnished by the principal. In very small school systems of course the superintendent is virtually the professional leader, though the nominal principal can find the best opportunity for his own growth by assuming such responsibilities as he can learn to perform; and in large systems much of the direct stimulus for teachers' growth may come from heads of departments, who should be organized and directed in turn by the principal. The principal is responsible for teachers meetings, but this does not mean that he alone should plan and conduct them.

The principal is a peripetetic training school, and in every meeting he should manifest a skillful teaching act. Good teaching involves first of all clear understanding of an objective to be attained, a need to be satisfied, a desired growth to be accomplished. It must in the beginning create in the learner a perception of need and a desire to grow by his own activities toward greater effectiveness. The principal will not stress with the teachers their duty to improve professionally, but rather he will emphasize, usually by subtle means, the opportunity to achieve greater results and more satisfactions by overcoming difficulties and by attempting new responsibilities. Good teaching next decides with the help of the learners what are the most promising and the most feasible means of growth, and when these are agreed on it furnishes repeated stimulus to continuous effort, correcting mistakes in procedure and helping the learners to improve and to extend their plans. It will encourage them to persistence by evidences of success, which whet the appetite for more. And, finally, it will steadily extend the vision of desired possibilities for growth, thus constantly setting up new challenges for learning. The process is never done. One project leads to another.

Obviously teachers meetings should never be planned as an



isolated means of supervision. As such they can never be either satisfactory or adequate. They are a part, and an important part, of the entire supervisory program, to be supplemented by individual conferences, by directed visiting and reading and study, and by every other means that promises to be effective. Sometimes the best meetings grow out of needs revealed by the other means, and more often a need of these means will be revealed by the meetings. The principal is probably the only person in the school or the school system who can clearly see the supervisory program as a whole and the part that teachers meetings can most effectively play in it. Thus he has the responsibility of leadership to help the teachers to an appreciation of their opportunity for considering together their common problems and coöperatively attempting to solve them.

Reading the discussion of teachers meetings and especially considering the purposes proposed for them, one may think that a superman is required to make them effective. Perhaps it is appreciation of the extent of the responsibility and understanding of one's own inadequacy in light of the ideal that has caused so many principals to use their group meetings merely for announcements of routine duties and for discussion of the relatively simple administrative program. Perhaps it is this procedure that has resulted in the attitudes of boredom and hostility on the part of the teachers. But timidity never characterizes leadership. Abnegation and neglect of responsibilities and opportunities never result in growth. If one continues hesitant to attempt supervision through teachers meetings because of the difficulty and the extent of the challenge, he will never become a truly professional leader. "One's reach should exceed one's grasp"; one's understanding of what may be done should be vaster than his immediate possibilities of accomplishment, otherwise there would be no prospect of growth. The principal ambitious to become an effective leader will appreciate the possibilities and he will attempt one at a time those that he thinks he is competent, or can learn to be competent, to achieve. Any success is so much gain, not merely to the teachers but also to the principal, who is himself attempting to grow on his job. There are good university courses in supervision, but at best they are merely a beginning. The superintendent should give much aid, but he seldom does. The



principal will learn most about the way to conduct supervisory teachers meetings by attempting to conduct them after he has made the most careful preparation of which he is competent and then by long and honest reflection on what he has done in order that he may learn how to proceed better the next time.

To be successful in conducting supervisory group meetings a principal must have clarified his own mind on the meaning of education and on the special functions of the secondary school that contribute most assuredly to it. He must appreciate what should be known, and attempt to know it, about the community, the teachers, and the pupils, that determines what may reasonably be attempted. He must know what good teaching is. And he must have a plan, a good plan, though not necessarily complete and certainly not inflexible, for procedure. In preparation he will be aided by his previous professional study, his observation of classroom teaching, his attendance on conventions, and his reading; but chiefly he must rely on his ability to think for himself and to use his own imaginative invention. No other situation has ever before been just like the one that confronts him, and consequently no program devised by others will exactly meet his needs. He must make his own plan and then prepare to use it in the best teaching of which he is capable.

A not inconsiderable part of the principal's plan for teachers meetings will concern problems of which the majority of the teachers will be aware dimly, if at all, and seldom in relation to the activities of the school as they are carried on. The principal will reveal them and make them seem important. He will also be able to ascertain the difficulties and the problems of growth of which the several teachers are aware, and he will have in mind a plan for at least beginning to overcome the former and to solve the latter. The principal as a leader must get used to the idea that others are inclined to depend on him, and he must prepare to indicate to them not only work that should be undertaken, but also promising means for doing it effectively.

The plan that the principal has worked out for directing growth of teachers by group meetings may not eventually prove to be the best possible, but in order to profit most by such suggestions as he can get from others he must have a general plan, not merely for the entire program of supervision but for the meetings as well. It is often wise, as previously suggested, that



he lay the problem of how best to improve the school first before a small group of the more professionally minded teachers, asking for their suggestions as to how it should be solved. In the subsequent discussion it will not be difficult to propose the pertinent parts of his own plan and to improve it in light of the discussion, which because of the size and character of the group is likely to be intimate and frank.

*Teacher participation in group meetings.* What is the syntax of the first word in the phrase "teachers meetings"? The phrase may mean a meeting of, for, or by teachers. In recent professional literature emphasis is frequently laid on the ideal that the group meeting should be planned and conducted wholly by the teachers. From this ideal there are sound grounds for dissent. No one would today seriously argue for the extreme opposite—that the principal should independently plan for all group meetings of the teachers, that he should call them without indicating their purposes or their nature, and that he alone should be active and vocal. But unfortunately that is the type of meetings which have too frequently been held. There is an already indicated middle ground that seems more justifiable. The principal is the leader of the school responsible for the supervision that looks toward the improvement of instruction and learning, and is therefore ultimately responsible for the effectiveness of teachers meetings as one means of supervision. With his larger vision he should make for teachers meetings a plan that he will modify freely as teachers acquainted with the purposes of the meetings and convinced of their sound value make suggestions for improvement. Being responsible he will conduct the meetings as a teacher would direct a good learning experience, turning over to the members such responsibilities as they are competent and ready to perform. In other words, teachers meetings gradually should become a coöperative enterprise with the principal always the responsible leader. On occasion the principal may have little or nothing to say in the meeting or he may absent himself altogether, but he is responsible none the less, and he will thus subordinate his own part only if that seems best to facilitate the growth of the teachers through their own activity. On other occasions, like any other good teacher he will dominate the meeting, not to exercise dictatorial authority but rather to open up new avenues of



thought and to direct the discussion economically to profitable results.

Much experience gives evidence that teachers are not only willing but also are eager to participate in group meetings if they are interested by appreciation of a worthy purpose, if they are challenged, and if they are made aware of their own competence to contribute. Their participation in the larger meetings is often facilitated if teachers are first given an opportunity for satisfying participation in smaller groups, where they are less embarrassed and where they feel that their contributions are as worthwhile as some by their colleagues. Often, too, it is perfectly proper to say in a small group what would not be wise to express in a larger, less homogeneous one. Interest is of course naturally increased by participation, and learning is greater from activity than from the most openminded receptivity possible.

The question of whether or not the principal should preside at teachers meetings is often raised. The answer depends on the nature of the meeting, on the relations between the teachers and the principal, and on his ability to preside as a leader of learners rather than as an official dictator. In all supervisory meetings there should be as little formality as possible; the leader should not sit in an elevated position of artificial dignity; those who contribute should not rise from their seats and deliver extended remarks. The rules of polite social discussion should prevail, the leader only insuring that each one has a chance to say without undue interruption what is in his mind and that a few do not dominate the meeting. The loquacious can be better subordinated by encouragement given to others to participate than by an official squelching. As a rule it would seem wise that the principal should be such an informal chairman of supervisory teachers meetings unless the purposes of the meeting can be best achieved by some other temporary arrangement. Whoever the leader, he must have a plan, which he is ready to modify as development indicates; he must be vigorous and expeditious and at the same time human, humorous, hospitable, considerate, and fair.

#### VI. Planning for Teachers Meetings.—

*Importance of preparation.* The importance of teachers meetings as an economical and effective agency emphasizes the importance of preparation for them. Poor teachers meetings will



not long be tolerated, especially in a school where there is good teaching, and well-conducted meetings will be a potent influence to improve teaching, whether it is good or bad. Failure results in hostility by teachers not only to further meetings but also to the principal's other efforts to improve instruction, while success leads to receptivity toward all kinds of aids to growth. The opportunity through group meetings to influence teachers, who are already matured and in varying degrees educated, is a challenge worthy of the most skilled preparation that a principal can make. It is easier to repair inadequate preparation by extemporizing in an individual conference than it is when confronted by a complex group each member of which is likely to have a different reaction to what is proposed.

The planning for any teachers meeting should be in terms of the supervisory program as a whole and particularly in terms of the group meetings that have preceded and that are to follow. A group meeting without such reference is likely to have little meaning and little significant effect. The program for a series of teachers meetings should have a unity, centering about a hierarchy of aims for the improvement of instruction; it should have a continuity but at the same time a flexibility that provides for developing contingencies. For example, the program may be planned for some objective which it may become apparent the teachers are not ready to attempt, or other needs may become so urgent as to demand precedence over those selected for consideration. It should have a balance and variety that challenge the interest of all teachers. This indicates that in the planning for group meetings the characteristics of the teaching corps—their preparation, experience, abilities, interests, needs, and attitudes—should all be carefully considered. The principal, who is the responsible leader of the faculty, should make for himself a long-term plan for teachers meetings, but he should always be ready to modify it in the light of suggestions from the teachers or of developed needs. The principal should be able to see farther and deeper than the teachers as individuals and probably as a group. He should appreciate the needs that they are conscious of, but he should also be able to perceive others of which they may not be aware and to envisage possibilities of developing unusual strengths which teachers would never think of proposing as matters of group discussion.



*Beginning supervisory group meetings.* If supervisory teachers meetings have not been previously held or if they are because of ineffectiveness unpopular, the principal has a peculiar problem. He has to convince the teachers that supervisory group meetings are not only desirable, but necessary as well. This he can seldom do by assertion. He has to use the same devices that a good teacher uses in motivating the study by pupils of a topic the importance of which they are unaware. Often he will begin with a matter about which the teachers have already expressed concern, needs that they have felt and on which they have sought help. An accumulated list of such needs he may present to the entire faculty or to a representative committee proposing that they select a few related problems that the group might profitably coöperate in studying. Suggestions for such problems he may invite from the teachers, or he may reveal important challenges by reporting criticisms from the public, the superintendent, the supervisors, or an inspector, or by presenting for consideration collected data, such as the results of tests. It is not sufficient, however, for the principal to suggest study of needs of which teachers are already aware, though that may well be his first step; he must also reveal to them other needs of the school and make them so conscious of their importance that they are impelled to recognize their significance and to accept them as a challenge for satisfaction.

On occasion it may be well to initiate supervisory meetings by joint consideration of some problem not directly related to instruction, but from discussion of which many teaching problems may be made to emerge. For example, if the question of the amount of participation that may be expected by teachers in communal activities is one of local concern, discussion of the matter may easily be led to a consideration of the kind of educational program that can be developed so that it will manifestly make impossible compliance with unreasonable expectation of participation in outside activities. Only ordinary teaching skill is necessary to make all roads lead to the Rome of the educational program.

Whatever the principal thinks are good problems for using when supervisory teachers meetings have not previously been helpful or are lacking in popularity, he will do well to gain the teachers' appreciation of their importance before calling a



group conference. He may assure appreciation by the methods of selection just suggested, or he may get receptive attitudes by referring a number of proposals to a committee of the teachers that they may choose what seem to them the most important and break them down into sub-problems that give promise of solution after a reasonable amount of effort. In the beginning even the topic approved for consideration should be one that will probably lead to some immediate improvement in practice. The more abstract, the more remotely fundamental, and the more complex problems can well afford to wait until there has been developed the attitudes, the abilities, and the long-sighted patience necessary to make their study feasible.

The best method of gaining favorable attitudes toward supervisory teachers meetings, then, is to begin with consideration of needs of which the teachers are aware or of which they can be made aware and to have them share in planning what specific topics shall be first considered. Added to this should be an active participation in the informal discussion that leads to agreement on something that should immediately be attempted. And this attempt should result in satisfactions, which will best be realized by successes insured by the subsequent supervisory aid of the principal to individuals, with evaluating reports made later to the group. If teachers meetings are novel or unpopular, the new program may well provide that at first they be held in school time, a class period being abandoned or an hour saved by slightly shortening every recitation during the day.

*Planning a series of meetings.* According to reports of studies made, the practice of long-term planning of supervisory meetings is very inadequate. The exact figures are unimportant, but they convincingly reveal that mostly the planning is done altogether by the principal, the teachers often being unaware even of what is to be considered, and that it is for one unrelated meeting at a time. But to this general practice there are many significant exceptions. The best principals make a long-term program for a series of related teachers meetings as a part of a well-considered plan of supervision and many of them either involve their teachers in one way or another in selecting the topics for specific meetings, or at least they make the teachers aware of what the topics will be and seek their approval and interest beforehand. One principal representative of this group



asked all of the teachers to suggest for discussion subjects from which he made selection; another turned over to a committee for selection all the suggestions made by himself as well as by the teachers; and still another developed the program after an open discussion in a meeting of the entire group.

The expression of needs by individual teachers should not be entirely neglected even if they are not immediately incorporated into the program for the group meetings. Everyone should receive from the principal consideration and some action, usually in an individual conference with the teacher who expressed it. Often it is good procedure for the principal to suggest a large topic of broad and convincing importance, which the teachers, either in a group or through a committee, break down into a series of minor topics each one large enough for a single unit of study. Such a committee can also profitably be used for making preliminary studies that clear the ground, define the sub-topic, and collect data so that the group discussion can more directly proceed to conclusions.

An important function of the principal in preparing for supervisory group meetings is continually to make teachers aware of needs, especially of those that relate to the general program of education, of the school, and of the interrelations between departments, of which the teachers have not previously been conscious or for which they have not felt a personal responsibility. Another important function is to focus attention on the possibilities of making still more effective the practices which are already significantly good. The effectiveness of the school will be more rapidly and assuredly increased by effort along these lines than along any other.

*Planning for one meeting at a time.* Just as each class unit of learning must be prepared for by a carefully made plan, so the teachers meeting must have similar preparation. However much teacher participation is ultimately secured, the responsibility for this planning rests ultimately upon the principal, who is a teacher of teachers. As the teachers are advanced in maturity and in professional competence, they challenge him to skilled leadership on high levels of learning, levels comparable with those on which are found the best seminars in universities. But even for such seminars the leader must make careful preparation in conformance with a comprehensive plan which he



must see more clearly, at least in the beginning, than any of his students can. He must see the aims of the whole program and plan each unit so that it contributes at the proper time and most effectively to them. He must share the aims with the students, modifying them from time to time at their suggestion, and both motivating and directing the types of study that promise the best results. He must make assignments so that they are accepted as worthwhile; he must prepare to stimulate and to direct the best possible study; he must direct the discussion and other coöperative efforts to achieve the desired ends; he must see that contributions are evaluated and conclusions reached as soon as the group is ready for them; and then he will have a responsibility beyond that of the university professor to continue his work so that the conclusions are effectively incorporated into the actual program of daily teaching.

All of this calls on the principal for preparation more carefully made and more skillful than any other teaching act that one can imagine. Every single supervisory teachers meeting, even after an entire series has been planned, demands hours of thought and the highest degree of skill of which the principal is competent. Besides knowing and keeping constantly in mind the objectives to be attained, he must know the teachers, their attitudes, and their individual competences, so as to plan most wisely for them to react and to proceed in ways that will assuredly result in growth leading to better teaching. He must plan his assignments and his challenging questions with all these things in mind, and he must anticipate the discussion so that he will have prepared optional procedures in case the one that was chosen as probably best fails to be effective. Is there any wonder that every writer who has perceived the possibilities of teachers meetings declares that careful preparation is necessary for their success? Emphasis is put on the desirable details of preparation not for the purpose of discouraging the timid, but to indicate the ideals toward which every principal should work. If he cannot achieve all of them at once, he can at least attempt to proceed in the indicated direction. His own growth as well as that of the teachers and the consequent success of the school depends on his leadership to achieve these ideals.

However interesting teachers meetings seem to the teachers, they are not really good unless they result in improved classroom



practices. Each meeting must be followed by other meetings, by individual conferences, and by other supervisory activities that will insure changed and improved procedures. Teachers meetings are merely an economical means of beginning the growth desired by each teacher; this growth cannot be assured unless the principal follows up the beginning by constant and long-continued stimulus and help of the kind that each teacher individually needs.

**VII. Some Topics Suggested for Teachers Meetings.**—The topics selected for consideration in teachers meetings will be determined by the urgency of the needs, both immediate and ultimate, the readiness and the other attitudes of the teachers, and the peculiar competence of the principal to afford effective leadership. The needs of the teachers will be found both by observing their practices and by the appeals for help which they make, but the supervisor must constantly evaluate these as to importance by reference to the fundamental program that he has prepared and must decide which are of sufficiently general value to be considered in the group meetings and which can be satisfied by individual conferences. A natural tendency of most teachers is to want immediate and specific help, but, as elsewhere emphasized, the best means to promote growth and independence is by securing an understanding and acceptance of basic principles. Every principle presented should be many times illustrated by reference to practices either observed by the supervisor or reported by the teachers, and in the group meetings plans should be worked out looking to its application in the future.

As a rule, it will be found wise to have for each semester one large problem, which will be broken up into minor contributing topics for discussion in each meeting. There should be variety in the unity, however, variety in the way the individual topics are stated and in the way they are presented, always with the relation shown to the major problem or principle selected for the semester's work. In other words, discussion of every topic should look backward to the larger plan and forward to application. There should be no hesitation in departing from the general program where there arises some need that is urgent or uppermost in the minds of the majority of the faculty.

In preparing topics for consideration the principal will not



forget that he is responsible for planning meetings for homogeneous small groups as well as for all of the teachers. The young teachers as well as the experienced, and the teachers of one curricular subject or a single class of pupils may well be called to meetings of their own group, but as a rule the topics for them should be related and contributory to the large semester program. Often in the small groups some teachers are better able to express themselves and to develop material of great value when later reported to the general meeting.

Teachers should properly have an opportunity to propose topics for discussion in group meetings, but obviously all suggestions will not be equally important and pertinent. Selection and arrangement in terms of the common interest and the urgency of general interest must be made, either by the principal or by a committee to whom the responsibility for planning has been entrusted. Some topics admirable in themselves may have to be postponed because discussion of them does not promise a sufficiently widespread contribution to the entire faculty or because they do not articulate with the general program. Recognition of their value should, however, be made to the teachers who suggest them, and at the proper time they should be taken from the table and incorporated into a new program. Teachers will seldom object to such postponement if they are led to appreciate the importance of the topics that are given preference in an effort to solve a problem recognized as of general value.

Teachers will suggest many important topics if they have a chance, but their judgments of relative worth are not infallible. Koos reports <sup>1</sup> that about 400 teachers in 25 high schools voted the following the most popular of 25 topics for consideration:

1. Fixing the policy of the school in the minds of the teachers (53 per cent) <sup>2</sup>
2. Discussing how to study (50 per cent)
3. Discussing progressive movements in other schools (41 per cent)
4. Discussing modes of recitations (32 per cent)
5. Definition and discussion of aims in subject-matter (25 per cent)
6. Study of individual differences in pupils (25 per cent).

<sup>1</sup> *The American Secondary School*, pp. 667-672.

<sup>2</sup> The per cents are only approximately correct, as the basic number of teachers is not exactly stated.



That teachers' judgments of importance should not be the only basis for selection is evidenced by the study of Waples.<sup>1</sup> After securing from a faculty a list of 59 difficulties which they had met in their work, he had them ranked by the same teachers as to frequency and importance. Between the ranks of the items above the median on both lists there was a very low correlation, only +0.22. Therefore while the principal should respect the suggestions made by teachers of topics for group meetings, he should not be unduly influenced by them. The judgment of one who knows the work of the whole school and evaluates it in terms of fundamental principles is probably better for deciding the general program for a series of supervisory meetings.

It is suggested that the topics selected for the first of a series of meetings, especially when they have not previously been popular, should be those that most assuredly lead to changes in practice. Principles that are remote from application and problems, like curriculum revision, and too large to be solved in a short period of time even by the most assiduous effort, may well be deferred. A good topic for an early meeting is Report Cards, initiated by such questions as: (1) What does a parent want to know about his child? (2) What does he learn from the report card that we use? (3) What happens when the report card goes home? (4) What do we hope will happen? (5) What better type of report card can we devise?

Following are some topics for teachers meetings. They are listed without regard to any order of importance and with no idea that they will be used in sequence. There are, of course, far too many for one year. A principal and the faculty may find the list suggestive to supplement their own list, which will grow out of appreciation of local and recognized needs. Topics that are peculiarly administrative have not been included.

### I. THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

1. What should we consider in teachers meetings?
2. How should we conduct them?
3. What sorts of people are our pupils?
4. What sorts of people do we want them to become?
5. What are the ideals of the democratic society that we seek?

<sup>1</sup> Douglas Waples, "A Program for a High School Teachers Institute," *School Review*, 34:202-204, March, 1926.



6. What sort of society do we actually have? How much truth about it can high school pupils stand?
7. Propaganda—by others and by ourselves.
8. How far is our curriculum adapted to our ideals?
9. What are the possibilities under existing conditions for improving it?
10. What can we learn from the secondary schools of other countries?
11. What do we mean by “education”? Agree on a definition that is clear, sound, comprehensive, adaptable, and impelling.
12. What good really is secondary education? What differences does it make? What differences do we want it to make?
13. To what extent have pupils a right to understand our general intent?
14. What do we mean by learning?
15. To what extent should secondary education be by means of “subject-matter to be learned”?
16. How should learning units be organized?
17. Reorganization of school offerings for greater integration and better articulation.
18. Sources and uses in each subject of materials enriching the curriculum.
19. How do we learn outside of school? How do our pupils?
20. How can our educative experiences outside the school be better utilized?
21. What is the relation of interest to effort?
22. What educational use can we make of pupils’ outside interests in stimulating and guiding their educative growth?
23. To what extent are facts, principles, and habits of work transferred by our pupils to other fields of need?
24. What sort of lesson plans can a teacher be reasonably expected to make?
25. What are the characteristics of a good assignment? Good assignments presented by teachers and discussed.
26. Means and values of incentives and of motivation of study.
27. Effects of praise, censure, and sarcasm.
28. How do our pupils study?
29. Just what does a teacher hope his pupils will do in preparing specific assignments?
30. What are the ideals of study that should be sought?
31. A program for improving study habits.
32. What are good study conditions?
33. Economical ways of checking on home study.



34. Plans for directing study and the use of a study coach.
35. Outlining as an aid to study.
36. More effective use of the library.
37. How many kinds of reading are there?
38. What are the characteristics of good reading in the study of each subject in the secondary school?
39. What are the chief deficiencies in the reading by secondary school pupils? How can they be overcome?
40. Improving leisure time reading: its purposes, its materials, and its methods.
41. To what extent should pupils be encouraged to propose purposes for each study unit?
42. To what extent should a teacher be expected to reveal to pupils the purposes that he has for each recitation unit? Effects of doing so?
43. Types of recitation, the advantages and disadvantages of each.
44. "The passing of the recitation" and proposed substitutes.
45. Diagnosis, an essential element in teaching individuals.
46. Study of pupil errors.
47. Teaching the individual in large classes.
48. Helping the unusually slow and the unusually gifted.
49. Using able pupils as helpers for the slow.
50. Effective procedures in remedial teaching.
51. Large work units for able pupils.
52. Teaching techniques in large and in small classes.
53. Some effective teaching devices.
54. What can we learn about teaching from athletic coaches?
55. "Drives": for better English expression, better voices, etc.
56. What are questions in the classroom for? How many kinds are there? What are the characteristics of good questions of each kind? Which should be prepared beforehand?
57. The effective use of field trips and excursions.
58. The effective use of visual and auditory aids to teaching.
59. The effective use of illustrations, both concrete and verbal.
60. How to secure mastery by pupils.
61. Reviews and drills.
62. How to improve retention of what is learned.
63. How to increase the use of what is learned for the satisfaction of needs outside the school.
64. How to make pupils aware of higher activities than they ordinarily perform and desirous of them.
65. How to measure learning.
66. Panel discussion on new-type tests *vs.* essay examinations.



67. How to construct good objective tests.
68. How to interpret the results of tests and to make a program for improving subsequent work.
69. Critical reports on reported research findings with a plan for putting them into effect.
70. Experimental studies that can be made in the school.
71. Creative education.
72. How can laboratory and shop work be made most educative?
73. A laboratory for music or art appreciation.
74. What in the community illustrates the principles taught in art, architecture, science, civics, government, and the like?

## II. THE SOCIAL LIFE OF THE SCHOOL

1. The orientation of new pupils.
2. The social relations of teachers and pupils.
3. Big Brother and Big Sister organizations.
4. How to utilize the environments for which the unusual pupils come?
5. What responsibility has the school for teaching good manners?
6. What are the emotionalized attitudes desirable in pupils and what means can be used to establish and utilize them?
7. What is the extra-curricular program of our school?
8. To what extent can each activity be made educative?
9. The General Organization and its work.
10. The Student Council.
11. Making the assembly educative.
12. Guidance—social, educational, and vocational.
13. Guidance for physical and mental health.
14. Responsibilities and opportunities of the class teacher in the guidance program.
15. Home-room teachers share their experiences.
16. Constructive and remedial discipline.

## III. MISCELLANEOUS

1. Secondary schools old and new: the significant changes.
2. Our philosophy for the whole school.
3. How can our school best pay dividends on the public investment?
4. The issues in secondary education.
5. The special functions of secondary education and how an attempt to achieve them would modify my teaching.
6. What becomes of our graduates?
7. Every pupil has a right to succeed. What is success?



8. What is failure? What happens to failing pupils? How can failure be prevented? What should we do after failure?

9. Knowing the community.

10. What do recent social and economic changes indicate for secondary education?

11. What the public thinks of our school.

12. What the public and the parents want to know about our school.

13. Proper publicity.

14. Education of the parents through their children.

15. What we can make our school conspicuous for.

16. The teacher and his public relationships.

17. What pupils like and dislike in teachers.

18. Some lessons I have learned from pupils.

19. What would make me happy.

20. What teaching does to a person.

21. What I expect to be ten years hence.

22. A teacher's leisure time.

23. Reports on individual reading, cultural as well as professional, and its implications for secondary education.

24. What is a good professional library? How to use it.

25. Reports on summer study and travel.

26. Reports on conventions attended.

27. Professional ethics.

### VIII. Administrative Aspects.—

*Frequency of meetings.* It is obvious that no authoritative definite answer can be given to the question of how frequently teachers meetings should be held. It depends primarily on the program that can be prepared and on the competence of the principal to administer it so as to bring about real improvement to the school through growth by the teachers. Secondarily the answer depends on the attitudes of teachers toward group meetings and on the pressure of other obligations. The former can be improved by well-planned meetings properly conducted; the latter can be relieved somewhat by temporarily suspending some duties so that a meeting can be held without unduly inconveniencing the teachers.

Data regarding the frequency with which teachers meetings are actually held in various parts of the country should have little weight to influence a decision as to the frequency with which they should be held. These data have been collected



with no regard to the types of programs, whether administrative or supervisory, and with no regard to the estimation of value in the eyes of either principal or teachers. The frequency of poor meetings would be entirely inadequate for good ones. If supervisory meetings are planned with such purposes in mind as have been suggested, it would seem that a school could not expect the desired results with fewer than one each week, and it does not seem unreasonable to expect each teacher to give at least one hour every week to a meeting of some kind that promises to increase professional growth toward greater effectiveness. At least until there is a consciousness of such growth the meetings may well be held in school time, classes being dismissed or left to work by themselves or, as is a common practice for other purposes, each period during the day being shortened by a few minutes until an hour is saved. A good criterion of the estimated value of a supervisory meeting can be found by asking whether it is worth while dismissing school for it.

*Time, length, and place.* The time selected for teachers meetings should obviously be the most satisfactory and convenient possible to all teachers. It will be different according to local conditions: The evening meeting, which may be ideal in a community in which all teachers live near the school, will be impossible elsewhere if teachers have to travel from their homes by car or train considerable distances. Experience shows that generally the best time is during the school day or shortly after adjournment on Tuesday or Wednesday; there is almost unanimity that Mondays and Fridays are not good. But whatever the time decided on, it should be fixed and unvaried. Teachers should reserve the same period from week to week, fitting other obligations into their programs accordingly. Once begin the practice of varying the time so as to accommodate conveniences and a veritable Pandora's box of troubles is opened: because it is a variable the engagement will be easily forgotten and no excuse will be considered by some teachers too trivial to justify a request that the time be changed each week. Refusal does not increase favorable attitudes. If the supervisory meeting is as well planned as its importance demands, it deserves a fixed and unvaried place in every teacher's weekly program.

The length likewise should be fixed and unvaried. Every



teacher has the right to schedule his time with an expectation that a meeting will be over at the time set. If any teachers wish to continue the discussion beyond that time they are of course free to do so, and one of the most encouraging evidences of appreciative interest is the groups of teachers who always carry on after formal adjournment. But even the most interested participate with lessened enthusiasm when the hour runs into another appointment, even though it is recognized as of lesser importance; and those whose interest and active participation are not yet wholly gained learn nothing if their minds are willy-nilly fixed on what they have planned but are prevented from doing. Because the academic habit is adjusted to periods of approximately one hour, that may well be the length of the ordinary teachers meetings. Some will deserve more time; little of significance is likely to be accomplished in much less.

The place in which a teachers meeting is held may well be determined in large part by its purposes. If an important purpose is relaxation and the cultivation of pleasant social relationships, the room selected should be as comfortable and cheerful as can be obtained—with sunshine, flowers, and easy chairs. If the prime purpose is serious professional discussion, such a room may still be desirable, but it is not so necessary. It should permit the seating of the teachers, preferably in a circle, so that everyone can feel free to contribute informally and so that he can hear what is said. The conventional classroom with straight rows of fixed desks, often too small for adults, should be avoided. Demonstrations of various kinds and panel discussions, debates, lectures, and reports may dictate special types of rooms or unusual arrangement of the furniture.

*Attendance.* The question of compulsory attendance should seldom or never be raised. Teachers are likely to attend the earlier meetings simply because they are called; they will continue to attend, usually with increasing enthusiasm, if the meetings are so planned that the programs are obviously profitable, if they are conducted so that everyone can participate by expressing his own opinions or otherwise, and if the results are followed up by the supervisor in such way that only those who have attended the group meetings can receive the most profit. A principal should never compel a teacher to attend group meetings; but persistent non-attendance would be justifi-



cation of a recommendation that the Board of Education should refuse reëlection. Any excuse for absence should be accepted, the teacher being incidentally made to realize that the proffered excuse is an expression of his judgment as to the relative value of the meeting. There will be good excuses for absence, of course, and as a rule teachers who are intelligent, self-directing adults with professional ambitions may be expected to decide properly when they should remain away. Each meeting should be so planned and conducted that the teachers feel it an opportunity and not an obligation.

There may be good excuses for absence, but there are none for tardiness. It has often been remarked that teachers, after all their years of insistence that pupils be prompt, are the least responsible body in the world for being on time for their own meetings. Their failure in this matter is cogent evidence against the old assumption of the automatic transfer of a habit from one field to another. If the time of the group meeting is set and unvaried, there is no good reason why every teacher should not be prompt at the designated hour. It may be laudable for one to tarry in his own room to give help to a pupil who needs it or to finish correcting a set of papers, but there is a time for everything, and the time set for a group meeting is the time when teachers should be there. People seldom miss trains that depart on schedule. A tolerance of tardiness for "good" reasons encourages tardiness for poor ones. Not only does the teacher who enters late lose something, especially in becoming rapport with the group, but by his late entrance he distracts attention and otherwise interferes with the effectiveness of even the most carefully made plans. No meeting should be delayed to wait for those who are tardy. "I am only five minutes late," remarked a member of a board of directors of a corporation. "No," replied the chairman; "you are sixty minutes late, for there are twelve of us."

*The organization.* Although, as has been repeatedly emphasized, teachers should be informed of the purposes of group meetings and should either as a body or through representative committees have a large share in planning them and in making them profitable, ultimate responsibility for their success rests upon the principal. As a rule he should preside, though with a minimum of formality. He should encourage participation,



and insure that everything that any teacher says has a fair and hospitable hearing—by himself as well as by others. He may properly ask questions and by other means help to get a proper interpretation of what is meant; and if he will from time to time summarize what has been said he will contribute no little to the steady progress of the meeting, besides discouraging irrelevant as well as repetitious contributions. When there are facilities available, a mimeographed summary of important agreements should be circulated as soon after the meeting as possible. The principal should not exercise his power to force reluctant agreement from those who are not convinced, and seldom if ever should action be taken on a bare majority vote. Votes should be deprecated anyway. There are few matters so urgent that a decision cannot be well deferred until opposition is convinced or until it decides that it is no longer worth while to put up an active fight. The chairman will be of great help if whenever a discussion becomes unduly abstract he calls for concrete illustrations, and he should keep constantly in the minds of the faculty what the outcomes of the discussion will and should be. A little humor now and then helps. In keeping with the ideal of informality, there is seldom need of a secretary to keep “minutes,” which are “read and approved,” but on occasion someone may very properly be asked to make a written memorandum of what needs recording for a probable future use.

#### IX. Some Basic Suggestions.—

1. Reserve the major part of teachers meetings for the improvement of instruction. If necessary to make announcements, reserve them to near the end of the meeting. “Just a moment for an announcement” at the beginning of a meeting usually continues for many unnecessary minutes.

2. Teachers should be led to have appreciation of the importance and the possibilities of supervisory group meetings. This will come chiefly from the proved value of those that are held rather than from anticipatory declaration. It will be facilitated by teachers’ participation in planning and by later applications of agreements to more effective practice. In some instances a principal may need to make a personal and frank appeal to an unsympathetic and recalcitrant teacher. Unless teachers come to desire more meetings the effort to hold them is largely in vain.



3. Only the teachers who are likely to be interested in the prepared agenda should be invited to attend.

4. Supervisory group meetings should be held regularly at an unvaried time most convenient for those concerned. Thus teachers may with confidence make their own programs for other activities; they are often put into an unsettled state of mind if they have to defer other engagements for a meeting called at a time for which they have made other plans.

5. Meetings should be convened and adjourned promptly at the times set.

6. The purpose or purposes for which a meeting is called should be definitely decided and usually made clear to the teachers beforehand.

7. Topics based on teachers' needs should be selected, preferably in the beginning, on the needs of which they are already conscious; later on, needs which they can be led to see as important may be considered.

8. The earlier meetings should be concerned with what can be put into immediate effect with easily obvious values.

9. Abstract principles should not be avoided, but they should be translated into plans for some early concrete application.

10. The supervisory meetings are for the teachers and should to a large extent be planned by them under the leadership of the principal.<sup>1</sup> They will be interested to the extent to which they approve the purposes for which the meetings are called. The best way of gaining their approval is to have them share in the planning; certainly the plans should have their approval.

11. Each meeting should have a unity of its own, which is a contributing part of a comprehensive plan for improving instruction. It should develop from what has preceded and look forward to what is to follow. The results should be of cumulative value.

12. A teachers meeting should be more carefully planned than the best classroom teaching, for it involves more matured learners and leads to more far-reaching results.

13. The plan should emphasize the program for the future rather than the mistakes of the past.

<sup>1</sup> The faculty of Erasmus Hall, Brooklyn, suggested that if teachers would write out all suggestions for group meetings, presenting topics, questions, difficulties, and criticisms, and hand them in to the leader, much time would be saved in the meetings by discussion of incompletely considered matters.



14. Such preparation beforehand should be made by the principal or by a coöperating committee so that the meeting can be devoted entirely to consideration of essentials. For example, before the meeting the main question can be broken up into minor ones, definitions agreed on, the issues defined, pertinent data collected, reports prepared from readings and observations, etc.

15. For most meetings teachers should be expected to make preparation in terms of the previously announced program. Preparation for the next meeting should be as carefully assigned and motivated as the next lesson in any class.

16. Teachers should participate actively in the meetings under the guidance of the leader. He will hold the discussion to the approved purpose and encourage every teacher to contribute from his own experience, knowledge, and judgment. The leader should never forget that each meeting is to stimulate and to direct teachers to grow.

17. Attendance should be expected, not because the meeting is an obligation but because it is an opportunity. It will be given cheerfully and even enthusiastically in proportion to the values that teachers are conscious of getting.

18. The leader should employ the best methods of teaching, exemplifying in the group meetings what is desired of teachers in their classrooms. Occasionally it would be well for the teachers to consider the procedures used and to suggest modifications that they think more desirable.

19. Like a good recitation the meeting

(a) should have a purpose approved by its members as worthy;

(b) should move briskly and steadily toward desired ends;

(c) should be confined to what is not only relevant but also most highly contributory;

(d) should be cheerful and pleasant because of the coöperative effort to achieve a commonly desired goal;

(e) should discourage wrangling;<sup>1</sup> and

(f) should eventuate in some conclusion looking to a definite modification of action.

20. The teachers meeting is no place for censure. On the con-

<sup>1</sup> As Livingston Lord used to emphasize, "Not who is right, but what is true," should be kept constantly in mind.



trary, every opportunity to express appreciation of serious effort and of achievement, however humble it may be, should be seized.

21. Agreement by all teachers should not be forced, but every effort should be made to secure it by full and fair consideration of all factors and of all arguments. Unequivocal statement of agreement made in the group meeting often saves much time later when a program of action is proposed.

22. Each meeting should close with a summary of what has been agreed on and every teacher should then have an opportunity to make corrections, to express reservations, or to approve.

23. It is wise in the teachers meeting repeatedly to relate the topic under discussion to other supervisory activities looking to a program of more effective practice.

24. It is the obligation of the principal to follow up each group meeting to see that its conclusions and agreements are applied in actual teaching.

**X. Results of Teachers Meetings.**—It is unnecessary and futile to present data found by studies which attempted to ascertain the results of teachers meetings as they are ordinarily conducted. Interest should be focused not on what teachers think they got or on what they proved actually to have gotten from such meetings, but rather on what they can reasonably be expected to get from meetings that are conducted in accordance with the highest ideals that can be regularly put into practice. There is abundant evidence from well-planned meetings that the results in improved teaching and learning are well worth far more than the time and energy put into them. Better still, the results are cumulative: one result is retained as an increased asset to which later ones are more easily added. There are some results, often the most important ones, of which one may be confident even though they are immeasurable by any instruments.

Among the important results that may reasonably be expected from well-planned supervisory teachers meetings are:

1. An awareness by teachers of problems and of needs and a stimulated desire to learn how to solve the former and to satisfy the latter. Teachers should get some immediate help, but, better still, they should get increased power to help themselves.



2. Increased knowledge gained from others with common interests.

3. Sympathetic appreciation publicly expressed by the principal.

4. Understanding of possibilities for unusual success along lines of which one has peculiar gifts, and both encouragement and help in achieving it.

5. A wider outlook, leading to better understanding of the contributions that one's work can make to the larger educational program.

6. Appreciation of dependence upon and obligations to one's fellow teachers in achieving the ends for which the school is maintained.

7. An increased will to grow—and to keep on growing, with some knowledge of how that is possible.

8. Better professional attitudes.

### EXERCISES

1. List your agreements and your improvements on the suggestions made for supervisory teachers meetings, and prepare a set of principles that you intend to use.

2. What general topic do you consider best for a large unit of teachers meetings? What smaller topics for single meetings would you subsume under it? Which of the stated purposes should you hope to achieve by means of them?

3. Select a single topic and make the best possible preparation for introducing and for considering it in a teachers meeting.

4. Plan how you will follow it up with three selected teachers so as to insure the maximum effects on practice.

5. How do you modify the list of results that you hope to secure from teachers meetings?

6. On pages 334–336 and 339–342 of the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, can be found outlines of six teachers meetings which may with profit be studied critically.

7. Criticize the two following plans for teachers meetings proposed by Mr. Gunnar H. Berg.

#### A

1. TOPIC: *What do we mean by Education?*

2. OBJECTIVES:

(1) To define education in terms of its fundamental ideas and processes.



- (2) To develop a definition that is clear, sound, comprehensive, adaptable, and impelling.
- (3) To evaluate such a definition in terms of specific subject-matter.

### 3. METHODS OF PRESENTING:

- (1) Statement by principal in written form in advance of the meeting, outlining its plan and asking teachers to investigate some of the suggested literature for definitions.
- (2) A special faculty committee appointed to make a definite investigation of the subject and prepared to report.
- (3) The principal can introduce the subject by a statement and be followed by a report from the special committee.
- (4) It is then opened for a general discussion. Write significant statements on the blackboard and then combine into a definition that shall meet requirement in objective 2.
- (5) Next carry out a discussion on how this definition can be put into practice in general as well as in connection with each subject.
- (6) Show what differences this definition would make in teaching and learning by the pupils.

### 4. PERSONNEL INVOLVED:

- (1) The principal of the school.
- (2) A special faculty committee.
- (3) Those members who have made special study of the problem.

### 5. OUTLINE OF CONTENT:

- (1) To develop from the reports and discussion a definition of education.
- (2) After it has been written on the board make an analysis of it. What makes it clear? Why? What makes it sound? Is it comprehensive? Why? Can it be considered adaptable? Why is it impelling?
- (3) What use can be made of this definition in teaching? What difference would it make in teaching English? Mathematics? Science? Shop? Others? How much would I have to change my teaching in order to apply it? Is the possible benefit worth the effort of changing?
- (4) What influence will it have in making assignments? in classroom procedures? in the type of questions used? in the amount of enrichment materials made necessary? in the testing procedure? in teacher interest? in pupil interest and results?

### 6. BIBLIOGRAPHY:

Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*, pp. 257-267 *et passim*. The Macmillan Company, 1933.



John Dewey, *Democracy and Education*. The Macmillan Company, 1931. (See Contents.)

William H. Kilpatrick, *Source Book in the Philosophy of Education*, Chap. I. The Macmillan Company, 1930.

#### 7. FOLLOW-UP:

- (1) Check, while visiting, on how the definition is used to guide teaching.
- (2) Tell about efforts to achieve its ideas before future teachers meetings and commend special results.
- (3) Bring up in individual conferences with teachers.
- (4) Encourage teachers to report on their own results. What have been the successes? the failures? Ask all teachers to hand in suggestions not only for improvements in the definition but also for means of doing the actual job in a better fashion.
- (5) From time to time report on new studies and possible readings on the subject.

#### B

1. TOPIC: *What are the possible uses of the library? What relation to pupil's subjects? to leisure reading? to extra-curricular activities?*

#### 2. OBJECTIVES:

- (1) To call the attention of the teachers to the possible uses of the library and the materials which are available for pupils and teachers.
- (2) To train teachers in the aids which they can give their pupils in using the library.
- (3) To get better correlations between the needs of the teachers and the facilities of the library.

#### 3. METHODS OF PRESENTING:

- (1) It is suggested that this teachers meeting be held in the school library.
- (2) The librarian should set up a complete exhibit of the types of materials that are available for teachers and pupils.
- (3) Charts and diagrams should be put up showing the library methods used.
- (4) The presentation should center around the ways and means that can be developed to get teachers to make adequate use of the library and how they can encourage their pupils to do the same. This will be a presentation by the librarian, using sample materials.
- (5) Teachers to tell the values of the library for their particular subjects.

#### 4. PERSONNEL INVOLVED:

- (1) The school principal and a special committee.



- (2) The librarian.
- (3) Special teachers who have made exceptional use of the library.

5. OUTLINE OF CONTENT:

- (1) Introduction of the subject by the librarian: The values of the library habit.
- (2) Have a presentation of the whole field of aids that are available in the library for the use of teachers.
- (3) Also present the aids available for pupil work and show how they are aided when they come to the library for materials and readings.
- (4) How to get the maximum benefits from the library. What advance notice is needed for special materials needed in classes, etc.
- (5) Statements by various teachers of the aids that they have obtained from the library in their subjects and the types of help that these teachers give their pupils in its use.
- (6) Discussion of the presentation and suggestions by the teachers of possible additions that could be made to the library.

6. BIBLIOGRAPHY:

Philip W. L. Cox and R. Emerson Langfitt, *High School Administration and Supervision*, Chap. XI. American Book Co., 1934.

Harl R. Douglass, *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools*, pp. 35, 36-37, 289-291, 308, 336, 451-453, 453, 453-454. Ginn and Co., 1932.

Harl R. Douglass and Charles W. Boardman, *Supervision in Secondary Schools*, pp. 423-429. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934.

7. FOLLOW-UP:

- (1) Check on the librarian to see if there has been an increase in the use of the library by the teachers and the pupils.
- (2) Report at subsequent meetings on these results and let the librarian give additional suggestions.
- (3) The librarian should be given frequent chances to call attention to the whole group of new and useful additions to the library.

*BIBLIOGRAPHY*

T. T. Allen, "Teachers Meetings upon a Democratic Basis," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 5:19-24, January, 1919.

C. J. Anderson and I. Jewell Simpson, *The Supervision of Rural Schools*, pp. 99-106, 257-286, 303-309. D. Appleton Company, 1932.

A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction*, pp. 410-414. D. Appleton Company, 1926.



- F. M. Crowley, "Informal Teachers' Meetings," *Catholic Educational Review*, 31:178-180, March, 1933.
- Harl R. Douglass and Charles W. Boardman, *Supervision in Secondary Schools*, pp. 192-216. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934.
- Fred Engelhardt, W. H. Zeigel, and R. O. Billett, "Administration and Supervision," U. S. Office of Education, *Bulletin 17*, Monograph 11, 1932.
- J. M. Hughes and E. O. Melby, *Supervision of Instruction in the High School*, pp. 52-56. Public School Publishing Co., 1930.
- L. V. Koos, *The American Secondary School*, pp. 667-672. Ginn and Co., 1927.
- George C. Kyte, *How to Supervise*, pp. 211-242. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930.
- Sister Antonia McHugh, "Funding Experience," *Journal of Higher Education*, 6:149-154, March, 1935.
- National Education Association, Division of Research, "A Handbook of Major Educational Issues," *Research Bulletin*, 4:229-230, September, 1926.
- National Education Association, Division of Research, "The Principal as a Supervisor," *Research Bulletin*, 7:326-334, November, 1929.
- Sara B. F. Rabourn, "The Principal of a Modern High School and His Committees," *School and Society*, 24:332-334, September 11, 1926.
- Douglas Waples, "A Program for a High School Teachers' Institute," *School Review*, 34:199-211, March, 1926.
- Bessie J. Wolfner, "Faculty Meetings: A Bore or a Delight?" *Junior Senior High School Clearing House*, 6:36-42, September, 1931.



## CHAPTER XVI

---

### OTHER MEANS OF SUPERVISION

---

Teachers meetings and individual conferences are without question the most important and effective means of helping teachers to grow in service and of achieving the objectives, previously listed, of supervision. These means can, however, be profitably supplemented by the use of supervisory bulletins, by directed study, by institutes and lectures, by directed reading, by demonstration teaching, and by directed visiting to observe the work of other teachers. Each of these means will now be discussed.

#### A. SUPERVISORY BULLETINS

Bulletins are regularly used by probably a majority of principals of schools of more than the minimum size. In the largest schools they are sometimes issued regularly in the form of a mimeographed or printed circular or magazine. In most schools they are merely notices posted on a board accessible to the teachers. For the most part, bulletins are for the purposes of administration, to give economically and accurately announcements of general interest. They emphasize or supplement the annual calendar, which should be in the hands of every teacher at the beginning of the semester. But there are definite advantages in using bulletins also for supervisory purposes, usually extending and supplementing the efforts that have been made in teachers meetings.

**Purposes.**—The general purposes of supervisory bulletins are, as just stated, to supplement other supervisory activities, to initiate new interests, to prepare for specific studies, to summarize discussions, and to lead to further work. They are an important means of unifying the teaching corps and of coördinating all the work of the school. They can be used effectively, too, in informing the teachers of administrative policies so that they can not only understand them but also effectively contribute to their successful promotion.



The more important specific purposes will be stated and some of them briefly discussed.

1. To announce the topic for the next teachers meeting. This should, as a rule, be more than a mere announcement; it should be the best assignment that the supervisor can prepare. It may well begin with an illustration drawn from observation of teaching in the school. This can then be followed by a statement of the problem, stimulating questions, and a brief selected bibliography, the most pertinent and helpful passages being definitely cited.

An illustration of a bulletin board notice of a teachers meeting is shown on page 461.

2. To summarize a committee report that is to be presented in a teachers meeting, and to state where it can be procured and read beforehand by those especially interested.

3. To summarize conclusions reached in a teachers meeting and to indicate procedures that should follow.

4. To report good work by teachers that has been observed. In each case the teacher's name and class should be mentioned. This not only stimulates interest, but also develops professional pride and ambition. It scarcely need be said that no teacher's name should be associated with a report of poor work. As a matter of fact, poor teaching should seldom or never be reported on the bulletin board.

5. To report good points gleaned by the teachers or by the supervisor from visits to other schools.

6. To report problems that arise out of observed teaching. These should challenge study and the ingenuity of teachers to solve them.

7. To cite books, old or new, that contain material assuredly of interest and help to teachers on the problems engaging their attention. The citations should give the specific pages that are most important or most likely to stimulate a reading of the entire book. Often an especially illuminating and attractive quotation may well be posted.

8. To cite articles in current magazines, professional or cultural, that the teachers may be interested to read with profit. A quotation or a short clipping may be posted if it is short enough to be read quickly.

9. To report news items of educational pioneering or of con-



## TEACHERS MEETINGS, TUESDAY, AT FOUR, IN ROOM 301

TOPIC: "*For every recitation unit pupils should propose purposes, or else understand, approve, and adopt as their own a purpose proposed by the teacher.*"

Is this principle sound?

Is it reasonable?

Will it work?

Let's observe our own procedures and prepare for a discussion next Tuesday.

PROGRAM	TO START OUR THINKING	IF YOU WISH TO READ
Discussion will be opened by brief talks:	In which of the two lessons outlined below did the teacher have a purpose that the pupils accepted as their own?	1. W. H. Kilpatrick, <i>Foundations of Method</i> , pp. 200–216, "Purposeful Activity."
1. Advantages and disadvantages of the proposed principle. <i>Miss White</i>		2. Douglas Waples, <i>Problems in Classroom Method</i> , pp. 401–404, "Establishing a Coöperative Attitude."
2. Means of approximating the proposed ideal. <i>Mr. Davis</i>	(Two lessons briefly summarized, one good and one poor.)	3. H. C. Morrison, <i>The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School</i> , pp. 103–107, "Establishing the Learning Situation."
3. Probable effects on teachers and on pupils. <i>Mr. Mead</i>		4. G. A. Mirick, <i>Progressive Education</i> , pp. 234–236, "Purpose Directs Our Thinking." Pages 236–238, "It is the Pupil's Purpose That Directs His Own Thinking."
4. Open discussion.		



spicuous success. These may stimulate ambition and direct teachers to schools in which they can profitably observe good work.

10. To announce an institute, lecture, or exhibition. The announcement should be in the form of an assignment, which will both stimulate the teachers' interest and also indicate how they can get the most profit from it. It may well also include a brief bibliography.

11. To report notes on an institute, lecture, or exhibit, with indications of the use that can be made of what was heard or observed and of problems that challenge study and discussion.

12. To report the results of tests or the results of experiments, especially those to which the teachers have contributed. Such reports should indicate the more important interpretations, the uses that can be made of them, and the emerging problems. This is an excellent motivation for teachers meetings and individual conferences, as well as of directed reading and study.

13. To express appreciation of unusually good individual work and of coöperation on the part of teachers.

14. To convey information of special pertinence about pupils who have made unusual achievement, who are competent to do better work than they are doing in classes, or who for one reason or another need temporarily to be given special consideration.

15. To present a short quotation of an inspirational nature. Some teachers are stimulated by a slogan; practically all of them at the beginning of a day's work appreciate a well-expressed thought that confirms or elevates their ideals or brings a renewed appreciation of beauty or of their responsibility to the human material with which they work.

**Bulletins for Special Groups.**—Bulletins for special groups—such as new teachers or those engaged in a coöperative project—are often needed. It is better if these can be circularized to the group concerned, but often it is more convenient to post them on the general board with a heading that indicates precisely for whom they are intended. A bulletin for new teachers may well include a general welcome, a statement of the administrative routine that they are expected to follow, and a few helpful suggestions. Although the supervisor may be well aware from his experience of difficulties that they may encounter, the bulletin is no place for warnings. If of imperative importance, they can



best be given personally and orally. It is better as a rule to give constructive suggestions rather than to handicap a teacher by making him unduly self-conscious and timorous by warning him of difficulties that he may encounter.

**Preparation.**—If the bulletins are to achieve the purposes stated, it is obvious that they demand careful and skilled preparation. Nothing so surely kills the interest in a bulletin as its failure to have an obvious and a convincingly worthwhile purpose or a slovenly, ineffective preparation. In some instances teachers may have contributions that should be posted, but always they should be handed to the supervisor, who will decide if, when, and how they will be used to contribute most surely to the program that he is promoting. He can often get valuable help by discussing with one or more teachers the purpose of a proposed bulletin and profiting from their suggestions. Not infrequently, having the point of view of those who are to read the bulletins and knowing at first hand their peculiar needs, the teachers consulted will be of great help in suggesting the content and the form of material to be used. The larger their share in the preparation of the bulletin, the greater interest and sense of responsibility for its success they will have.

**The Bulletin Board.**—The board itself can be of several forms: white pine or other soft wood covered with billiard cloth of a pleasing color; cork, which, however, tends to warp, or plain linoleum. The frame, which can be made by pupils as a project in the shop, should be neat. The completed board should be placed where the teachers will all see it without undue effort and where they can read the notices without being jostled by passers-by. It should have a good light and care must be taken that no notices are so high from the floor that they cannot easily be read, even by those who wear bifocal glasses. Each notice should be clearly typed or written, preferably with a heading that indicates its nature. The selection of an interesting and clever head often attracts readers when otherwise the notice would receive scant attention. Also a neat arrangement of the notices on the board will add to its attractiveness.

**Some Practical Suggestions.**—

1. Keep separate the administrative and the supervisory announcements. The latter may have a separate board or a special section reserved for them.



2. Post on the board only what has a specific purpose and merits attention.

3. Make the board attractive in form. The neatness of the notices, the cleverness of the headings, the placing of the separate items, a bit of color, a graph, a cartoon or other illustration—all contribute.

4. Change the notices frequently. As a rule, no notice should be left on the bulletin board more than two or three days.

5. Post only brief notices or clippings. Anything that requires more than two minutes to read should be made available in the library or in the principal's office, the bulletin merely carrying a notice of it.

6. Use freely concrete illustrations and the names of the teachers. Both attract attention.

7. File the notices that may be used in subsequent years, either for posting again or as suggestions for preparing others that are more effective.

8. Follow up the notices by personally discussing the matters with the teachers who should be especially interested and by looking for evidences of application in classrooms of the suggestions made.

## B. DIRECTED STUDY BY TEACHERS

**The Need of Continuous Study by Teachers.**—In all professions, especially in those in which there are numerous changes, those members who are ambitious to maintain their prestige and to increase their effectiveness find it necessary, whatever their previous preparation, to carry on their studies continuously. One significant characteristic of professional education is that it can never be completed. Engineers and lawyers usually “keep up” and advance chiefly by reading professional journals and books and by learning from their colleagues with whom they work. Physicians and surgeons use these means and also frequently find it desirable and even necessary to attend clinics and short courses in formal schools to increase their knowledge and to improve their techniques. Recently there has been endowed an institution the sole purpose of which is to furnish additional training to physicians who will from time to time leave their practice for periods of study.



Teachers need to continue their study, formally and informally, just as truly as members of other professions. Perhaps they have a greater need because frequently their preparation has in the beginning been neither adequate nor sufficiently motivated by a knowledge of the problems later to be met. Unlike engineers and lawyers, they work more or less in isolation in their own classrooms, gaining information from their colleagues incidentally rather than from coöperative effort or from direct competition. Moreover, there is a constant development of the theory of education, especially as it concerns social responsibility, and there is a continuous series of proposals of new subject-matter and new techniques, all of which must be understood to be evaluated in order that the best may be used. A teacher must grow or be a laggard in the procession of progress. He can improve somewhat by the specific directions of his superiors, but he grows most assuredly and steadily by his own efforts.

In many communities there are formal requirements that every teacher must give evidence of having pursued professional studies in order to maintain his tenure or to gain promotion or increase in salary. W. H. Maddock reported <sup>1</sup> that five of every eight cities which he studied offer pecuniary inducements for formal study by teachers and that one in four of them exacts a penalty for non-attendance. Such requirements ought not be necessary; the stimulus should come from a felt need and from professional ambition. But since they exist they should be fulfilled in the spirit that prompted their enactment. A responsible principal should see that they are so fulfilled. He can do this chiefly by substituting for the incentive of requirement a true motive resulting from a realized need and by seeing that the results of the required study are used to increase each teacher's effectiveness. Study by teachers, whether required or voluntary, should be directed to a broadening of vision, especially as to the social significance of education, and to the satisfaction of specific needs. Often it will be necessary to repair deficiencies in knowledge of subject-matter or of methods of instruction; but perhaps even more frequently it should extend a teacher's competence in something in which

<sup>1</sup> "How Public Schools Reward Teachers for Summer Study," *The Nation's Schools*, 10:36-38, November, 1932.



he has already manifested unusual ability and promise of growth.

**Teachers' Attitudes toward Study.**—Although some teachers have continued their studies merely to satisfy requirements, the great majority have the finest of professional attitudes toward it. Of this there is much evidence, from which only one selection will be made.

In the study by the superintendents of Hampden County, Massachusetts, previously quoted, summer school attendance was ranked first among the methods of improving the service of teachers, extension courses were ranked  $5\frac{1}{2}$ , and correspondence courses 19 out of 20 items.

Following is the ranking of the various types of extension and summer school courses taken by teachers while in service in order to improve the quality of their teaching. The ranking is the average of three groups: for normal school graduates, 110 selected teachers, 19 supervisory officers, and 28 professors in normal schools and colleges of education; for college graduates,

TABLE IX

EXTENSION AND SUMMER SCHOOL COURSES RANKED IN THE ORDER OF ESTIMATED IMPORTANCE FOR JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

COURSES	NORMAL SCHOOL GRADUATES	COLLEGE GRADUATES
Courses based upon curriculum of school.	1 (1-1-1)	2 (1-2-2)
Method courses for subjects taught. . . . .	2 (2-2-4)	1 (2-1-1)
Educational and vocational guidance. . .	$3\frac{1}{2}$ (3-5 $\frac{1}{2}$ -3)	4 (4-5-3)
Subject-matter in the field actually taught by the teacher. . . . .	$3\frac{1}{2}$ (4-5 $\frac{1}{2}$ -2)	3 (3-4-4)
Educational psychology. . . . .	5 (5-4-6)	5 (5-3-5)
General courses in methods. . . . .	6 (6-3-9)	8 (7-6 $\frac{1}{2}$ -12)
Related subject-matter. . . . .	7 (7-11-5)	7 (6-9-9)
Health and recreation of pupils. . . . .	8 (9-7-9)	14 (13-15-13)
Philosophy of education. . . . .	9 (13-8 $\frac{1}{2}$ -7)	6 (9-6 $\frac{1}{2}$ -6)
Ethical training. . . . .	10 (8-8 $\frac{1}{2}$ -15)	12 (8-13-14)
Educational tests, measurements, and statistical methods. . . . .	11 (11-11-12 $\frac{1}{2}$ )	11 (11-12-11)
General professional education. . . . .	12 (10-11-16)	10 (14-8-10)
Educational sociology. . . . .	13 (12-13-12 $\frac{1}{2}$ )	9 (10-10-7 $\frac{1}{2}$ )
Cultural courses of a general nature. . . .	14 (14-14 $\frac{1}{2}$ -11)	15 $\frac{1}{2}$ (12-14-16)
Current problems in economics and polit- ical science. . . . .	15 (16-16-9)	13 (15-16-7 $\frac{1}{2}$ )
Supervision of instruction. . . . .	16 (15-14 $\frac{1}{2}$ -14)	15 $\frac{1}{2}$ (16-11-15)
School administration and organization.	17 (17-17-17)	17 (17-17-17)



91 selected teachers, 20 supervisory officers, and 35 professors. In the parentheses are the average ranks of each group in the order just given. "The various types of courses were rated in terms of the Typical Teacher of a specified grade with approximately ten years of experience, who has obtained little or no additional training through extension courses or summer school work since graduation from normal school or college."

Inasmuch as the content of courses offered under the same title varies to a large extent and as the skill and personality of the instructors also cover a wide range, these ranks cannot be considered conclusive evidence as to what any given teacher ought to study. But undoubtedly they are significant of what competent groups of considerable size have learned from experience in a number of different institutions. In preparing to recommend courses that some teacher should take, a principal would doubtless be somewhat influenced by these expressed judgments; but he will make a recommendation primarily in terms of the teacher's characteristics and needs and of what he knows or can learn of the available courses and of the instructors.

A supervisor should discourage and even in some cases forbid a teacher's taking an extension course when the objective is merely to obtain a credit that will be used for personal advancement, if the demands of the course are likely to sap strength and energy needed for daily work, or if the contemplated course promises no definite and substantial contribution to the teacher's growth, especially in competence to satisfy the immediate demands upon him. The supervisor should be so esteemed by the teachers that they will seek his advice regarding any formal professional study which they consider undertaking.

**Extension Courses.**—Professional schools have been quick to see the opportunity of extending their facilities and influence by giving courses off the campus. There is no reason why courses which continue the general preparation of teachers and do not require special equipment should not just as well be given in a local secondary school building as in a college or university; the only difference from the usual procedure is that the instructor comes to the students. Unfortunately certain abuses of this practice have been not infrequent. No school should approve extension courses unless the instructors are not only thoroughly competent but also willing to spend such time at



the place where the courses are given as will enable them to learn to know the students and to give them at least as much personal help as would be available at the professional school. The instructor who arrives just in time to repeat a lecture that he has given many times before and who leaves immediately thereafter cannot teach teachers satisfactorily.

The supervisor has a responsibility to see that a proposed extension course is planned specifically to meet the important needs of the teachers who are interested in taking it; that the instructor is not only thoroughly competent but also willing to spend sufficient time at the school to give individual advice and help to his students; that the necessary books and other equipment will be provided; and that the teachers can afford the time and the energy desirable for the course without sacrificing efficiency in their own classrooms. The supervisor should review with the instructor the proposed syllabus, and later he should be informed by the teachers of the developments so that from time to time he can make to the instructor suggestions tending to improve the effectiveness of the course. Any instructor unwilling to accept such suggestions is not likely to be desirable.

The best type of extension course is one that is specifically adapted to the needs of the teachers in the local school. After the teachers and the supervisor have determined what the important needs are, they may engage a competent instructor to spend an entire day each week learning the school in order to develop a course peculiarly designed to give such help as is desired. This is, of course, merely involving another person in supervision. The advantages are, first, that expertness in a special field is procured; second, that the teachers will give more time to study and development than they otherwise might; and, third, that they may gain college credits for their work.

Not all courses taken in extension, in summer schools, or by correspondence need be directly professional. Supervisors can wisely encourage some courses that are cultural in nature. If good, they will give to the teachers as individuals such development of their personalities as cannot fail to make them ultimately more effective influences upon their pupils. Moreover, many teachers, especially those most devoted to their profession, need the relief that is afforded by familiarity with the best



that has been thought and said in the world, whether or not it promises any direct improvement of instruction. Other desirable courses will give desired knowledge of subject-matter.

The supervisor has an obligation to see that what is learned from any kind of extension course is applied by the teachers to the improvement of their own work. It is not sufficient that as a result teachers know more; they must manifest that as a result of their study they can more effectively do their work. Some will make the attempt independently; others will not do so unless there is pressure and help from the supervisor. He must be liberal in his approval of plans for experimental trying out of suggestions from the course, but he has a responsibility for seeing that the proposed procedures are reasonably promising and that there are plans to assure the best results in conformance with the general program of the school.

**Correspondence Courses.**—These are of most value for teachers individually who have specific needs that cannot be satisfied otherwise. They are especially valuable in providing help in learning subject-matter and the philosophic backgrounds of education, and much less so for developing techniques of teaching. Correspondence courses have by and large proved less effective than either courses taken in extension or in summer schools. Kyte reports a low ranking in estimates of value by experienced teachers. Seldom can one expect a large amount of personal help from the instructors. A teacher who has learned how to study independently can usually get about as much from directing his own work. But the formal course may provide the continued stimulus that some need to help them stick at a task. When a teacher is taking a correspondence course, the supervisor has the same obligations for guidance, stimulus, and directing application as are mentioned in the preceding section.

**Summer School Courses.**—It has sometimes been argued that teachers need the long summer vacation to recuperate from the fatigue resulting from their work during the thirty-odd weeks of teaching school. Occasionally this argument may be sound, but as a general rule it ignores the historical reason for the extended summer intermission, the powers of the human organism, the possibilities of recreation through a change of work. Arai and other psychologists have given



convincing evidence that what is ordinarily considered mental fatigue is almost without exception merely boredom. The best way to regain mental tone is to do something interesting; the best way to be interested is to do something in which one can be successful. A teacher who would loaf through three months is hardly desirable in a school. As a fact, almost no teachers do loaf. Like other active human beings they do those things in which they find most pleasure or from which they derive the greatest profit of the kinds that they want. Increased professional competence is what the most desirable teachers want more than anything else.

Summer schools furnish an important opportunity for physical, mental, and cultural re-creation. In almost every one there are richer provisions than teachers can ordinarily find elsewhere for the same expenditure of time and money. In them teachers also renew their understanding of the learner's attitudes, difficulties, and joys of achievement. In them they have systematically presented, presumably by instructors of superior competence and personality, the kinds of help that judgment based on long experience has approved. And in them they have perhaps even greater opportunity to learn from fellow teachers who have faced and in various ways solved common problems, and who also throw light from their varied facets on what the instructors present.

A supervisor can assist teachers in numerous ways to assure that they get more than they otherwise might from attendance at summer schools. The more important of these ways will be presented and briefly discussed.

1. The supervisor should throughout the school year continually attempt to make teachers aware of the specific needs that they have to promote their professional growth. Some of these needs will be for the removal of deficiencies of knowledge or of skills, but emphasis may well be laid on the need of learning to do better the things which they already do reasonably well and in which they give promise of learning to be outstandingly superior. The more the study is motivated by a consciousness of needs, the more effective it is likely to be.

2. The supervisor should encourage teachers to undertake such formal study as their needs and potentialities indicate as desirable. Often making teachers aware of their needs is



sufficient; usually a little encouragement and pressure help them in coming to a decision to undertake additional formal study. He should see to it that so far as possible and justifiable teachers are rewarded by financial bonuses or by increases of salary when the study undertaken promises an addition to an efficiency already acceptable. When the purpose is to bring teaching practices up to an approvable standard, the teacher should reasonably have no bonus; it is his responsibility to prepare himself to do acceptably what his position demands.

3. The supervisor should help teachers choose wisely the school and the courses they will elect. He probably already has a considerable fund of information concerning available summer schools; in addition to passing that on to teachers he can help them read and interpret catalogs and other announcements. Informal groups of interested teachers can divide the work of reading catalogs and pool their findings. From personal experience and from reports of the experiences of others every supervisor accumulates a fund of knowledge about the values of schools and of courses; this knowledge he should constantly supplement by getting reports from teachers who have taken certain courses and formed judgments of the effectiveness of certain instructors. An interchange between schools of such information will build up a valuable means of helping teachers make successful choices. In addition, the supervisor not infrequently can get from his friends valuable information regarding courses and instructors, and there is additional information in Cook's *Who's Who in Education* and Cattell's *Leaders in Education*.

4. The supervisor should get from all teachers who have studied in summer schools an extended informal report of what they have learned. This is important first because it influences the teachers to summarize and evaluate their experience, and second because it enables the supervisor to know what he can help the teacher use. When a report is of sufficient interest and value he may have it presented before the general teachers meeting, the parent-teacher association, or other public group.

5. The supervisor should see that the teacher has opportunities, either in his own classroom or elsewhere in the school, to use what he has learned. He should give encouragement to pioneering and experimental application of theories, and he



may wisely aid in the making of plans to insure the best results. Some of the novel applications may be so successful as to warrant their being demonstrated before the group of teachers most likely to be interested.

6. The supervisor should evaluate in terms of the general educational program of the school every application of what has been learned in summer study. Some practice or procedure may be good in one situation and ineffective or even harmful in another. The evaluation should be accompanied by an attempt to preserve the teacher's enthusiasm and to salvage whatever is promising of value in the local situation.

7. The supervisor should recognize and popularize successful application of what a teacher has learned in a summer school. This tends not only to justify the study at a summer session, but also promotes the teacher's ambition for further work and growth. In addition, it is likely to stimulate other teachers to undertake similar study.

**Informal Study Groups.**—Study by teachers in service need not be confined to formal courses of the kinds just discussed. In many school systems there are numbers of ambitious teachers with similar interests who by suggestion will form small groups for informal self-directed study. A supervisor can be helpful not only in assisting such teachers to get together and organize groups, but also in encouraging them to do so and in coöperating in various ways to plan the study program and to carry it through successfully. By keeping in touch with the study as it progresses he can renew fading enthusiasms, and by using the results, as previously suggested for summer school learning, he can make them profitable for the school and promotive of further similar effort.

### C. INSTITUTES AND LECTURES

**Current Practices.**—The institute has a history extending back to the days when teachers had little training and less supervision. Supported by legislation that often requires attendance, it is still widespread throughout our country, often using as much as a week of the school year. The cost of such extended institutes is enormous, not only in the salaries paid to the teachers for attendance but also in the time lost by the pupils from school. They can be justified only if every day spent in attend-



ance results in considerably improved instruction when the teachers return to their regular duties. When one considers the typical program of the county institute, which as a rule all teachers, from those in rural elementary schools to those in urban secondary schools, are compelled to attend, it is difficult to imagine a justification. There is always music, often on a level lower than that taught in the schools; there is usually "entertainment"; there are endless announcements; and, as a rule, imported speakers deliver lectures on subjects of their own choosing often little related to local needs. If teachers had to pay the expense of such institutes out of their own pockets, the protests would be so violent as to lead to abolishment or to improvement.

The institute held by individual schools or faculties, usually before the academic year begins or using a day at a time through the term, are usually better planned and more effective in results. Essentially it is a teachers meeting of the kind discussed in an earlier chapter and should have the characteristics there presented. It may differ in the one respect of being addressed by some outside speaker invited to make a contribution for which he is especially competent. Such an institute has possibilities of value. It should be considered a supplement to supervision and not a substitute for it.

**Attitudes of Teachers.**—In the long run the attitudes of teachers toward institutes will be chiefly determined by what they think they get out of them. They may be entertained by the programs, but unless they learn something that they can apply to the improvement of their own work they will not respect them. It is not an uncommon phenomenon for teachers to be inattentive at an institute, tardy and irregular in attendance, and eager to leave, sometimes because the program is not a worthy one, especially in its pertinence to local needs, and sometimes because their supervisors have not prepared them for appreciation and do not themselves expect to use in any subsequent definite way what is proposed. Studies that have been made agree that teachers rate institutes very low among the instruments of supervision. Unless their attitudes can be improved, the institute will continue to be ineffective.

**Making the Program.**—The program of any teachers institute should grow out of general supervision. It should have



highly specific and important purposes which can be promoted better by this means than by any other. The teachers should have not only a knowledge of the reasons for a program of a proposed institute, but they should also have a share in making it. The thesis discussed in Chapter X should be consistently applied by the supervisor, for in the institute the teachers are the learners, and their profit is likely to be in proportion to their comprehending, approving, and adopting as their own the purposes which the institute is organized to achieve. If those purposes grow out of previous study done by the teachers to satisfy their own needs, their attention and coöperation will be eager and intelligent.

There should be provision for more than attention; teachers should, as far as feasible, be given an opportunity to share in the proceedings of the institute. One may at the beginning present the background of the problem to be considered; another may propose the solutions discussed in their own meetings; and after the speaker has made his contribution all should have the opportunity to ask questions, to challenge what has been said, or to debate the proposals that have been made. If teachers do not feel free to express themselves in the institute, they should be given the opportunity in a subsequent teachers meeting held at an early date. But if they have had a hand in making the program, if they are sincerely and deeply interested in the problem discussed, and if they have learned to express themselves in their own meetings, they are likely to participate actively in the institute. The extent to which they do so is evidence of the effectiveness of previous supervision.

**Purposes of an Institute.**—In general the purposes of an institute are the same as the purposes of meetings conducted by the supervisor or by the teachers themselves. They may differ in that emphasis is placed on the more general purposes, leaving those highly specific to be sought in the weekly meetings of more homogeneous groups. There is possible a development of *esprit de corps* from the gathering of the teachers of a large administrative unit, but it must be carefully prepared for and definitely sought. Inspiration may be given by an important speaker, but true inspiration can come only from the understanding and adoption of a fundamental principle which when digested will motivate self-directed activity. The best inspiration



is likely to be evanescent with most teachers unless they have subsequent and repeated help in directing it to practical application. Inspiration is too frequently confused with entertainment and with generalities that sound impressive, but which lead to no change in teachers' practice.

The institute may better than the teachers meeting of a single school provide professional idealism and relate education more closely to modern civilization. It may acquaint teachers with the larger trends of education, and it may introduce some new movement that will interest them to understand it and to share in it. It may serve to explain the large educational program of the community and to help identify the teachers with it. It may be effective to introduce some new idea or procedure, which teachers later may study for introduction. It may, in short, supplement and strengthen the supervisory program. But it cannot be a substitute for it. Supervision may use the institute, but it must continue its own work unceasingly after teachers have returned to their own classrooms. The institute is not likely to be effective in working out detailed plans for procedure, nor should it attempt to give in its limited time training that can better be directed elsewhere.

**Selecting a Speaker.**—There is no point in having an outsider address teachers unless he has special competence to do what is expected of him. This implies, first, that something definite is planned for the institute. When for some reason it is desired that teachers come into contact with a powerful personality in education for the real inspiration that he may give or when it is desired that they be made acquainted with a field in which a man is a leader, only then should the determination of the definite subject of the address be waived by the school. Second, this implies that the invited speaker knows more of the stated subject than the supervisor knows or can readily learn; and, third, that he has competence to present clearly and interestingly what he knows. The supervisor has an obligation to use these criteria in selecting for an institute any speaker, whether he be a noted educator or an influential layman, for the time, money, and energy expended are too much to be wasted. It is highly unethical to invite anyone, whatever his prominence, to address an institute of teachers unless he is the best person available to promote a purpose that is worthy, definite, and specific.



**Preparing a Speaker.**—The supervisor's responsibility extends also to preparing an invited speaker so that he makes the best contribution possible. As what can be done in the short time available for the institute is limited, it is important that everyone make his maximum contribution. The supervisor in extending the invitation should state with unmistakable clearness precisely what the purpose of the institute is, and he should give a sketch of local conditions and of what is planned subsequently in supervision so that the speaker will accurately understand the contribution expected of him. It may not be inappropriate to suggest that teachers will appreciate numerous concrete illustrations of all proposed theories. If the invited speaker is unwilling to coöperate or feels that he is not peculiarly competent or if he is unwilling to prepare specifically for the challenge, it is unethical for him to accept the invitation. If he does accept, the supervisor should make a point after his arrival further to explain the local situation and to get the speaker's general ideas so as to make suggestions leading to more assured effectiveness. It may be wise under certain circumstances to arrange that the guest see some of the work of the school which it is proposed specifically to improve and to have a preliminary informal conference with a few of the teachers.

**Preparing the Teachers.**—That the teachers should understand and approve the purpose of the institute has already been emphasized. In further preparation the supervisor should discuss with them just what they expect to get from the program and how they can most assuredly get it. In coöperation with the supervisor the teachers may work out a very definite assignment for themselves, an assignment necessitating specific readings and subsequent discussions before the institute is held. If they are expected or are to be permitted to ask questions of the guest or to participate in a discussion with him, preparation for that is also desirable. Not every teacher knows how to listen to a lecture, to take notes on it, and to reflect profitably on what has been heard. These matters may be discussed and planned for. Such preparation is likely to result in a "readiness" and a receptivity on the part of the teachers that will insure a hospitable attitude. If the guest is informed of the preparation made by the teachers, his own sense of responsibility will be deepened, and a better institute is likely to result.



**Follow-up.**—An institute is a means of promoting the improvement of teaching. Its success is insured by what the supervisor does subsequently. First of all, he needs to reflect on what was proposed and to select what seems to be especially useful in the local situation. After his own reflection he may profitably talk over the institute with as many individuals among the teachers as convenient to get their reactions, to insure that they have understood and appreciated the more important contributions, and to prepare them for the applications that seem wise. These informal talks are often a profitable preparation for the group discussions at which definite proposals for utilizing the contributions will be formulated. After the discussions in one or more teachers meetings there should follow individual conferences for constructive planning, demonstration lessons, directed reading, directed visiting, and whatever other means are indicated as desirable for promoting the supervisory program, of which the institute has merely been a part.

#### D. DIRECTED READING

**Uses.**—Like members of other professions, all teachers will do some professional reading. The challenge of the supervisor is to increase the amount of such reading, to improve its fruitfulness, and to encourage use of the results to develop the growth of the teachers in effectiveness. Professional reading can helpfully prepare for specific phases of supervision and it is a desirable and necessary supplement to almost all other supervisory activities. Besides being economical of everybody's time, it goes a long way toward making supervision impersonal. Teachers cannot be sensitive or unduly suspicious when the author of a book makes a suggestion or a criticism that is recognized as applicable to their practice.

**Random or Directed Reading.**—Professional reading may to an extent be random so that a teacher explores new fields and satisfies his natural desire for individual freedom; but that it may be most assuredly profitable for the unified school program it should be largely directed by the supervisor. He sees the program as a whole, he recognizes the needs of individual teachers, and presumably he has a wider knowledge than they of the field of professional literature. Whether random or directed, most reading should be done with a specific purpose in mind.



No one can remember all that he reads; he is most likely to find meaningful and to retain for use only the ideas that contribute to some need of which he is or can be made conscious. Growth comes not from knowing but from attempting to use what one knows.

A supervisor should be especially concerned to encourage teachers to continue reading along the lines suggested in professional courses that they have had. No student is able to do all of the reading in any course that he would like to do, and unless he is encouraged and even stimulated he may procrastinate until the value of the proposed reading and perhaps of the whole course is materially lessened. The more of such extended reading he does, the more likely he is to be ambitious for further formal study. Whenever a teacher becomes a master in some special area—like that of testing or of skillfully using illustrative materials or of directing study—he is not only ripe for supervisory help and direction, but he can also be used to aid other teachers either in a group meeting or by individual conferences in improving their skills in the field in which he has made himself competent. It is probably wiser to direct reading to promote a teacher's promising strengths than to remedy his weaknesses. Incidental help will serve for the latter until there has been developed sturdy professional health, which will more or less automatically care for weaknesses or certainly make their eradication easier.

**Wide Reading on a Single Topic.**—A supervisor should attempt to get every teacher to read widely on a special topic and not confine himself to discussion of it by a single author. Conflicting theories raise issues which stimulate thought and lead to independent judgments. One of the best things a supervisor can do for teachers is to get them to realize that they must think and decide for themselves. When they see that "authorities" disagree on many matters of educational policy and procedures, they can easily be led to use these pronouncements valuably not as finalities but as stimulants to their own thinking. As Dewey has so often argued, real thinking is impossible until one is confronted by a difficulty, a dilemma presented by conflicting opinions that demand intelligent choice.

**Stimulation to Writing.**—Professional reading may be used to stimulate teachers to write for publication articles explaining



their successful practices or presenting arguments supporting their opinions on moot issues. By reading they may come to realize that they themselves have something to say and to believe that they can say it as well as others. They should be encouraged to write articles and assisted in getting them published, for writing demands a clarification of thinking and an organization of ideas so that the relation to larger problems is more easily seen, and publication develops a professional pride which leads to further growth.

**Reading Individually and in Groups.**—Most professional reading will probably be done individually for the satisfaction of needs that everyone realizes in his own peculiar work. But there are distinct advantages in coöperative reading by a group having similar interests and needs. In the first place, a responsibility to do one's share of the work on time stimulates many who otherwise might procrastinate. In the second place, there is economy in individuals reading widely and contributing their gleanings to the common knowledge. And, finally, everyone profits from a discussion in which all participate because they are informed and stimulated by reading on the same topic. When sufficient interest exists or can be created, the supervisor can help organize and plan for one or more reading groups, each one homogeneous with respect to interests and needs. If discussion is to be free and full, the number in each group would best be kept small.

**Finding Time for Reading.**—With the pressure of school duties, those normal and those occurring periodically, teachers often feel that they have little or no time for systematic reading. It is perfectly true that some teachers do and that all teachers can devote practically all of their time to school work; but the supervisor should bring them to a realization that each one owes something to himself, that he has not only a right but also an obligation to save some part of each day to help forward his own growth. However harried by the pressure of work, each teacher should make a schedule setting aside a period that he scrupulously reserves for wisely planned reading or study, whether or not it promises to make an immediate contribution to the demands of the classroom. In the long run it will pay handsome dividends. Growth is more important than the completion of innumerable petty tasks. As no one can do



day by day all that is expected of him, everyone should be discriminating in the allotment of his time and energies.

**A Professional Library.**—Every school, however small, should have a well-chosen and steadily growing professional library, for which the Board of Education should make a generous appropriation each year. The books and magazines should be selected by the supervisor with the assistance of the teachers to contribute primarily to the promotion of the general supervisory program. Such a library can usually be supplemented by books from traveling loan collections, from neighboring colleges of education, and from contributions from the teachers themselves. The number of books and magazines is not so important as that they are helpful in the special studies carried on by the teachers and that they are used continually and effectively. Lists prepared by others, such as the "Sixty Best Books of the Year," may be suggestive, but they should never be used blindly. What is best for one group of teachers engaged with problems peculiarly emphasized in their school may be of relatively little value in another situation.

Reviews published in professional journals of books on education will ordinarily indicate whether or not a new book is promising for local needs, and usually it can be secured without cost for examination. There are numerous published bibliographies on special topics, and schools of education are generous with advice, which is likely to be valuable in proportion to the fullness with which local needs are explained. The most fruitful source of help in locating magazine articles on almost any and every topic is the *Educational Index*, published monthly and cumulated quarterly and annually.<sup>1</sup>

**Directing Professional Reading.**—A supervisor will suggest or assign from time to time readings in connection with problems discussed in group teachers meetings or in conferences with individuals. Gradually he will learn which teachers can profit from reading abstract theory and which require the concrete explanation of specific procedures, and he will be influenced to make suggestions accordingly. But in addition to general suggestions or requirements the supervisor should offer numerous ones that are highly specific to the interests, needs, and abilities of individual teachers. He is most likely to get desired reading done if he

<sup>1</sup> The H. W. Wilson Co., New York.



gives the exact pages on which help is to be found. "You ought to read up on this topic" seldom produces the desired result. To stimulate interest in an entire book, the supervisor may suggest that a passage of assured interest and value be read first.

The more personal a supervisor makes his suggestions for reading, the more likely they are to be effective. A written memorandum to an individual teacher that he will find help on some specific problem in such and such book or magazine will usually result in its being read. The desired reference may be got from the *Educational Index* or from the file of especially valuable material that the supervisor will cumulate from his experience. When the whole faculty is likely to be interested, a similar notice can be placed on the bulletin board or in the mail box of each teacher. Written suggestions are more effective than those orally given. Sometimes a written comment attached to a magazine or to a book on the reserve shelves will attract enough attention to stimulate its being read. And a file of comments and criticisms by teachers upon books and articles on special topics is influential to determine what others read or avoid.

**Teaching How to Read.**—Although every teacher is supposed to know how to read, many can profit from instruction in the effective reading of professional literature. The first requisite is a definite purpose. There are literally dozens of purposes for which one may read, each one entirely proper in one situation and relatively valueless in others. Unless a reader has a problem to solve, he is likely to waste time in poring over printed pages. We spend too much time on the printed page and too little reflecting on what it says and on planning what use to make of it. Most people even after graduation from college can be helped in learning to make a digest of what they have purposefully read, to interpret and evaluate it, to supplement it from their own experience and prior knowledge, and to reorganize the whole so that it may be useful in determining a sound procedure. One or more teachers meetings may profitably be devoted to discussion of how to read professional literature, and illustrations should be presented by both supervisor and teachers. Not only should the results be profitable for the purpose indicated, but they will probably also enable teachers better to instruct their pupils in the complex, difficult, and neglected skill of reading on the adult level.



**Discussion of What Has Been Read.**—Everyone clarifies his ideas by discussion; to some extent he has to do so in order to present a matter to another, and he also profits from what that other person says. A supervisor should encourage teachers to talk over with him informally what they have read, and he should make opportunities for them to do so. The more voluntary this discussion is on the part of the teachers, the better; but when they do not take the initiative the supervisor should ask their opinion of what they have read, especially of what he has suggested that they read. He should give the impression that he is sincerely interested in the teachers' reaction. "Our principal," a teacher wrote, "was especially helpful by handing me magazines and asking for my opinion on certain articles. He usually took the opposite side in the discussion afterward, and when I convinced him of a good point he emphasized and enlarged upon it." A supervisor should always respect a teacher's judgment, and he should be hospitable to any proposal to make practical use of acquired suggestions.

**Making Application.**—A supervisor can direct and stimulate professional reading, but his obligation is not satisfied until he has helped every teacher to a development of the habit of making use of what he has read. The application may be immediate or in the future, but it should be planned for not later than shortly after the reading has been completed. One of the severest criticisms of our education is that it results in so much reading with poor or indefinite purposes and in satisfaction with "having read," with no sense of responsibility to apply to some profitable use what has been learned. Professional reading is not primarily for relaxation or the consumption of spare time. If it does not eventuate in a contribution to better understanding of education and to better procedures in teaching, it may just as well be neglected. It is the supervisor's responsibility to see that the reading of professional books and magazines is wisely selected and that it results in practical application.

### E. DEMONSTRATION TEACHING

Demonstration teaching is generally considered not only desirable but also necessary in teacher-training institutions and it is widely and frequently used as a means of improving ele-



mentary school teachers in service. They report it of high value, and at institutes a demonstration almost invariably attracts a large crowd of observers who manifest their estimate by eager attention. Hughes and Melby, however, report what is confirmed by common knowledge, that demonstration teaching is seldom used in secondary schools. The reasons for this neglect are probably several in number, the chief one being that supervision has been neglected there. If it is successful elsewhere, it can be made successful also with secondary school teachers. It is usually more effective, though less individualized, than directed visits by one teacher to observe the work of another.

**For All Teachers.**—The mistake should not be made of having demonstration lessons for observation given by weak teachers, for then inefficiency is advertised with embarrassing results. All teachers, whatever their competence, can be benefited by observation of a demonstration carefully prepared for a specific purpose. That purpose may be to make clear the meaning of some previously discussed theory, to show how it may be applied, or to remove doubt of its practicality. Some teachers who are good in doing those things to which they are accustomed find it difficult to translate into practice abstract theory acquired from reading, study, and institutes, but they can understand well enough when someone else makes the translation for them. When the matter to be illustrated is of common interest, the demonstration should be for the entire faculty; otherwise, for the group peculiarly concerned.

**Some Purposes.**—Ordinarily a demonstration should grow out of discussions in teachers meetings, though on occasion it may introduce a novel procedure and thus prepare for subsequent study and discussion. In every instance it should be considered an integral part of the whole supervisory program. If the school is attempting to introduce or to improve assignments, directed study, use of concrete or verbal illustrations, auditory and visual aids in exposition, questioning, the socialized recitation, the project method, the Morrison plan, individualized instruction, or any other similar technique, a demonstration lesson can well be used as an objective explanation and argument. An excellent demonstration was given before a group of science teachers by a class that had made out of materials of



small or no cost the apparatus used. Other lessons have successfully demonstrated the advantages of ideal equipment.

**Selection of a Demonstrator.**—The demonstrator may be anyone who has the competence to present what the teachers want to see—the supervisor himself, a teacher in the school, or a specialist imported for the occasion. A teacher of the school is probably best in that the observers will more easily realize the possibilities of doing themselves what they observe. The supervisor can prevent any probable jealousies by giving several teachers opportunities of demonstrating in a planned series of lessons, and he can help to overcome timidity by emphasizing the importance of the project in common interest and by helping the demonstrator to make adequate preparation. In beginning the use of demonstration lessons the supervisor can promote appreciation of their respectability by selecting as demonstrator a teacher outstanding in academic knowledge as well as skilled in the special procedure to be illustrated.

**Preparation of the Demonstrator.**—That the demonstration lesson may be successful the supervisor must insure that the demonstrating teacher understands not only precisely what is wanted, but also the underlying and justifying theory. If the demonstrator has already gained outstanding skill in the procedure to be illustrated, the supervisor's chief emphasis in the preparation should be on the justifying theory. Sometimes when no such demonstrator is available he has to select a teacher who can assimilate theory and skillfully translate it into practice. To increase the probability that the demonstration will be successful, the supervisor should review with the teacher the plan that the latter has developed for use and make such suggestions as he can for improvement, especially to insure that the teaching will bring out what it is considered important for the observers to see. If it is necessary—and it will be when a demonstrator is brought in from the outside—the supervisor should review the supervisory unit of which the demonstration is a part and present an understanding picture of the observers and of their peculiar interests and needs at the time. He would do well, too, to prepare the demonstrator for a possible lack of appreciation and for hostile criticisms that may be voiced.

**Preparation of the Observers.**—It is characteristic of human nature to find fault more easily than to appreciate good. Unless



the supervisor is able to get observers to realize that they will profit from the observation in proportion as they find the good, the experience will be neither profitable nor conducive to a desire for further observations. He can best promote the desired attitude by creating an interest and a realization of need. As learners and as possible later demonstrators themselves, the observers can easily be led to appreciate the requirements of courtesy and the reciprocal responsibility for applying the Golden Rule.

In preparation the supervisor should see that every teacher knows precisely what he is to look for. He may prepare—or, better still, he may have the teachers themselves prepare—a guide sheet or, for the sake of economy, a check list that they may use in the observation. One objection to a check list, however, is that sometimes it is used mechanically without materially stimulating thought. He should make or have made a summary of the principles underlying the project to be illustrated, and he should warn the teachers against being diverted from the primary purposes of the observation by interesting details not directly contributory to the special procedure. The lesson plan to be used by the demonstrator may sometimes be distributed beforehand so that the observers can become familiar with it, and certainly they should be given necessary information concerning the whole teaching unit of which the demonstration is supposed to form a part: they will need to know the main objectives sought, what has already been learned, and what is planned for the future. When the pupils in the class are in any way unusual, the observers should be given the necessary information about them.

The supervisor should emphasize that the observers are not to sit as judges of the demonstrator's general skill as a teacher or even the degree of success which he manifests in conducting the ordinary routines of teaching. They are to concentrate on the procedures used to achieve the stated objectives by the means being demonstrated and constantly to think of what they themselves can learn to improve their own practices. The supervisor should encourage the teachers to take notes freely, using such procedures as they wish him to use when observing their own teaching, and to reflect on these before entering into a discussion of the lesson.



**Preparation of the Pupils.**—The direct preparation of the pupils should largely be left to the demonstrating teacher, but often the supervisor can be of help by explaining to them the purpose of the demonstration and by appealing to them to be natural and to justify their selection. Aroused pride will do much to remove the self-consciousness that adolescents often feel in an unusual situation. When demonstration teaching becomes common in a school, it will be taken as a matter of course by the pupils as well as by the teachers. Sometimes to insure the exhibition of what is desired the teacher may give to some, if not all, of the pupils special coaching. This he may properly do if he makes a statement of the fact to the observers.

**The Subsequent Conference.**—After the class is dismissed the demonstrator should be given an opportunity to explain, justify, and criticize his own work and that of the pupils. He should be especially careful to tell why he departed at any points from his original plan, and to state what he intends to do to improve his techniques in subsequent teaching. He should also answer questions that are asked for information by the teachers, who should be careful in this preliminary not to frame their questions in such a way as to imply criticism. As a matter of fact, the observers should suspend judgment until they have had a chance to reflect on the whole demonstration in relation to its setting and to the justifying theory.

It is preferable, though not always feasible, in order to give opportunity for the desired reflection by the supervisor as well as by the teachers, that discussion of the observed lesson be not held immediately. Nor should it be deferred until the edge of memory and interest has dulled. Preliminary to the discussion the supervisor may well make a very brief summary of the underlying theory in order that the teachers will be more likely to have and to keep it in mind. They will be all too prone to discuss details not directly relevant to the purpose of the demonstration. Then the demonstrator's plan should be considered and finally his performance, which usually will depart somewhat from the original plan. The supervisor will perform valuable service if he can keep the focus of attention on the good, which either may be emulated or will suggest procedures that others can advantageously use. (Incidentally this is a good



time for the supervisor subtly to get the teachers to realize his problems in criticizing their work.)

The discussion should eventuate not merely in better understanding by the teachers of the demonstrated technique and of each other, but also in a planning for what they, individually and collectively, can do with it to make their own teaching more effective. Every teacher should be got to commit himself in public as to approval of the demonstrated project, in theory or as presented, and, preferably, as to what changes in his own practice he purposes to make. Such a commitment makes easier subsequent individual conferences.

**Subsequent Individual Conferences.**—The supervisor will find that he has an obligation to continue the discussion individually with those whom he most wishes to be influenced by the demonstration. These teachers fall into three groups: those whom he has reason to suspect have an erroneous or an incomplete understanding of the significance of the demonstration; those who are unconvinced of the need or desirability of change; and those who are most likely to adopt and to use successfully the important suggestions conveyed by the demonstration. The third group presents the most important challenge. Probably not all the teachers will ever be wholly convinced by a demonstration of the desirability of significant changes in their own practice. Those who are convinced and who have the potentialities for professional growth through effort to use what they learn constitute a challenge to the supervisor to help them constructively in that growth by utilizing and extending in application what they have learned.

**Substitutes for Demonstration Lessons.**—A stenographic report of a lesson exemplifying a practice which it is desired the teachers should understand and consider with a view to adapting for their own use may be mimeographed and distributed for study.<sup>1</sup> Though it departs somewhat from lifelikeness, it is economical of time and of effort. If a lesson satisfactory for the purpose cannot be found or arranged for stenographic report, one can be written up from imagination. What it lacks in verisimilitude is compensated for by the precise illustration of the principles and practices which the supervisor wishes to

<sup>1</sup> See Maxie N. Woodring, "Use of the Stenographic Lesson in Improving Instruction," *Teachers College Record*, 47:504-517, March, 1936.



bring to the teachers' attention. Much the same result can be attained by using brief lesson summaries which omit all the details that are not essential to the purpose of the discussion.

#### F. DIRECTED VISITING

**Values and Practices.**—Sending teachers to observe other teachers at work differs from providing demonstration lessons chiefly in that the supervisor has less control over the lesson to be seen. "A strong teacher cannot observe without raising questions, having convictions strengthened, and obtaining new ideas,"<sup>1</sup> and even a weak teacher can get help of such kinds as will presently be mentioned.

"If visiting days for teachers," says the Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, "are looked upon by teachers as holidays from work, or an opportunity to pay personal calls upon other members of the profession, or an excuse for visiting another city for some other purpose, they serve no worthy educational purpose. If visiting days are looked upon as opportunities for observation of teaching methods of superior teachers; if the visits are anticipated, planned for, and are a part of the general plan of the supervisor for improving teaching, they are a valuable part of a worthy plan of teacher improvement."

Before the economic depression, free days for visiting were rather generally provided, but there is little evidence that they were used with the profit that is possible. It is unreasonable to expect that teachers permitted to visit where and whom they please a day at a time will either get much benefit or highly value the privilege. It is useless to record the reported attitudes of teachers toward undirected visiting. Instead a plan will be proposed for making directed visiting an effective means of supervision. If it can be made effective, it is well worth the time required of a teacher from his own classroom.

All teachers, the experienced as well as the beginners, the efficient as well as the weak, can be benefited from seeing other teachers at work if they are prepared for the observation and directed to those rooms in which skilled teaching of interest to them is carried on. Like attendance on formal demonstration teaching, visiting of other teachers should grow out of a definite

<sup>1</sup> C. J. Anderson and I. Jewell Simpson, *Supervising Rural Schools*, p. 294. D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1932.



need and should be a contribution to the general program of supervision. The best verbal exposition of theory is clarified and reinforced by concrete illustration.

**Purposes of Directed Visiting.**—The more important purposes of directing teachers to observe the work of others in the same or in neighboring schools are the following:

To enable a teacher

1. To see a concrete exemplification of some theory that has previously been to him merely abstract;
2. To see some special practice or skill demonstrated well;
3. To observe for comparison practices that are similar to or diverse from his own;
4. To learn the effective use of equipment, direction of auditorium programs, rehearsing and producing of plays, preparation of exhibits, direction of the school publications, and the like;
5. To acquire higher standards;
6. To become acquainted with pupils soon to be promoted to him in the course that they are following;
7. To learn of the success and failures in advanced courses of pupils whom he has taught and of the requirements that they have to meet;
8. To know the work of other teachers in the same school as a contribution to the unity of the corps.

Visits may be directed to fellow teachers in the same school or to teachers in other accessible schools. The former may develop embarrassments until the purposes of visits are appreciated and until everyone recognizes that what is reported is used for common helpfulness; they have the distinct advantage of being easier to arrange, especially in a sequence that enables an observer to follow through an entire unit of work. Inter-school visits are probably the best with which to begin. As a rule, teachers are pleased at the opportunity to see how another school works.

Every directed visit should have a definite purpose, the satisfaction of a need which the supervisor has discovered and has made obvious to the teacher. The visit should supplement other means of supervision, especially the teachers meeting and the individual conference. It should be suggested and arranged for only when it promises to contribute something that has not



resulted from the other means used. It is a highly individualized means, for teachers should not be sent visiting in large groups: at most, only two or three with the same needs and interests should visit another teacher at the same time.

**Finding Teachers to Be Visited.**—To insure that visits will be maximally profitable, a supervisor must know where good work of various kinds is to be found. This he will learn partly by his own visiting, in his own and in other schools, partly by reading in magazines reports of superior practices, and partly from other neighboring principals with whom presumably he is in close contact. If he is a member of a small professional group that meets for discussion and the exchange of ideas, he will learn of much superior work; from informal conversations he will learn of more; and there is always the possibility of asking a neighboring principal if he has a teacher who illustrates unusually well some theory or practice. By such means the supervisor builds up an index of places where is being carried on unusually good work to which he can direct his own teachers for observation. It is uneconomic to send a teacher visiting without specific directions, hoping he may find something to observe that will prove helpful.

**Preparing the Observer.**—The supervisor should make entirely clear to a teacher why he is to make a visit of observation. If the previous supervisory work has been well done, this will be easy. The supervisor must be careful that the directed visit is not considered an implied criticism which he does not care to make openly. As a matter of fact, all attempts at supervision are an implication that work can be done better; the direction of a visit for observation is merely one of the means by which both teacher and supervisor can learn better methods of procedure. In a way, it is a self-confession, which can be made clear to the suspicious teacher, that the supervisor feels that someone else can be more helpful than he. The clarification of the purpose of the visit is likely to make the teacher not only willing but also eager to go. This is especially true if the purpose has grown out of a realized need. The supervisor may add importance to the visit by asking the visitor to bring back a report likely to be helpful to his fellow teachers.

The supervisor cannot over-emphasize the wisdom of the visitor's looking for good practices. Every piece of teaching is



likely to have some defects, but observation will prove of no value if these defects are allowed to prevent one from observing the novel and the good. Coöperatively the supervisor and the teacher may with profit work out an outline for observation. The points made should have importance in terms of the purpose of the visit. From previous study or conferences the visitor should know the various possible procedures in the activity to be observed and the arguments for and against each. Such knowledge will enable him to understand and properly to evaluate what he observes. Sometimes objection is made that lessons prepared for observation are not normal, that both teacher and pupils may "put on a show." That is not important. What the observer wants to see is the best work possible, whether it is normal or not.

The supervisor should make clear that a visitor is received as a courtesy; that he has no rights, especially to expect that the usual program will be varied for his sake. Being a self-invited guest he should be careful to make as little trouble as possible and to express his appreciation of favors shown him. A general discussion in a teachers meeting of the courtesies to be observed by both visitor and host may be worthwhile. Every observer may well have in mind that a return visit may be made at some future date.

**Preparing the Host.**—The supervisor should arrange amply beforehand for every visit. He will tell the principal of the school to be visited in general what is desired and ask for a date that is convenient for all. That having been determined, the supervisor should, either orally or by letter,<sup>1</sup> explain to the teacher who will act as host the general problem confronting the visitor and the specific things that he wishes to see practically demonstrated. As a rule the host will make every effort to be helpful in the ways desired. If convenient, the visitor should have a short conference with the host before the observation more fully to explain his problem and to learn the general plan of the lesson that he is to see. Whether he has this preliminary conference or not, he should make every effort to have one after the observation in order that he may ask questions and express his appreciation of the courtesy extended.

<sup>1</sup> An illustration of such a letter is given by Anderson and Simpson, *op. cit.*, pp. 298-300.



**Holding a Conference Subsequent to the Visit.**—Shortly after a teacher returns from a visit the supervisor should hold with him a conference in which he learns what was observed. He will usually need to help the visitor, chiefly by questioning, to make the proper interpretations, especially in terms of his need, and evaluations by general principles. He will always have to put forth every wise effort to insure that use is made of the good things learned. Sometimes it will be necessary to curb an enthusiastic ambition to make changes too rapidly, but it is better to capitalize the enthusiasm by encouragement of plans than to repress it until complacency with old routines returns. There will always be later opportunity to modify a plan that is too radical or that is in any respect unsound. When it promises to be profitable the supervisor may ask the returned visitor to make a report at the next teachers meeting of the best that he has seen. He may also get and give in the conference suggestions of various kinds of making other observation visits more profitable.

**Stimulating Teachers to Want to Visit.**—Reports by visitors of the good things observed are likely to cause other teachers to wish to visit also. But the best stimulation is the realization of needs which they can be helped to satisfy by observing how other skilled practitioners have successfully solved similar problems. The administration should arrange to free from their classroom obligations for a reasonable number of days each year all teachers who have a definite program for directed visits to observe specific work known to be superior. Substitutes can be provided or, if the visits really result in increased efficiency, the classes may be given responsibility for their own direction during the absence of their teachers or even dismissed for the day. Almost anything is justifiable that results in professional growth, which should manifest its beneficent result continually for years to come.

## EXERCISES

### BULLETINS

1. Prepare for a bulletin board an assignment for a teachers meeting.
2. Prepare such a summary of a teachers meeting as you think could profitably be posted. Precisely what purposes do you seek?
3. Prepare for the bulletin board an announcement of a professional



address and give such an assignment and directions as are likely to stimulate the teachers' interest and to increase their profit from it.

4. Select a dozen brief passages from various sources that you think might well be posted for inspirational purposes.

5. Prepare a bulletin to be read by new teachers before they begin work.

6. Outline several supervisory situations in which the bulletin could be profitably used for a specific purpose.

7. Using a number of pieces of paper of different sizes, place them so that they make a neat and artistically pleasing display in a space the size of a bulletin board.

8. What kinds of bulletins are best circulated individually to teachers?

### DIRECTED STUDY

1. How much professional study outside the direct preparation for performance of your duties did you do the last year you were in active teaching service? How did you find or make time for it? How do you now think you could have found more time for it? What is your plan for next year?

2. What stimulation did you have from others to carry on professional study? What means of stimulation and of motivation do you think you can use with teachers for whose growth you are responsible?

3. How could your study in your last year of active teaching service have been made more fruitful of results? Use the answers to this question in preparing a plan for making the study, directed and voluntary, by teachers whom you are attempting to supervise, more fruitful for immediate application and for continuous growth in professional competence.

4. Criticize extension courses that you have known and state how you think you could improve those that may be offered for teachers under your direction.

5. Give to the courses listed on page 466 ranks indicating the value that you got from those which you took. How do you explain your departures from the average ranks given by the Hampden County groups?

6. In the light of your observation and of the reports made to you by teachers who have taken those courses, rank them again in the order in which you would recommend them in a selected institution for several different teachers whose characteristics and needs you know.

7. Criticize the common practice of urging, if not requiring, study by teachers in service.



## INSTITUTES AND LECTURES

1. Recall the institutes that you have attended and the professional lectures that you have heard and state what values, immediately or later, you think you got from them. What factors increased their value for you and what factors inhibited it?

2. Outline a program which you think you could use to make institutes and professional lectures maximally profitable to the teachers in your charge. How can they be made to articulate with other means of supervision?

3. To what extent do you think teachers should share the responsibility for making institute programs and participate in the procedures? Justify your answer.

## DIRECTED READING

1. How much time do you think a teacher who is reasonably adjusted in his position should devote each week to professional reading? Is he justified in slighting his assigned duties in order to find time for such reading? How many hours a week should a teacher be expected to give to direct preparation for his work at the school? If he finds that he needs more time than you state in your answer, what should be done?

2. What proportion of a teacher's reading should on an average be directed by a supervisor? To what extent will your answer vary with the experience and the competence of the teachers?

3. Explain why some of your professional reading has proved of great value to you and why other such reading has proved of little or no value. What does your explanation indicate as to what you as a supervisor could do to increase the value of teachers' professional reading?

4. Outline in some detail the ideal way in which you should like to have teachers read professional literature. What could you do to get them to form habits of reading in this ideal way?

5. What obligations and opportunities has a supervisor in directing the reading of the teachers in his charge?

## DEMONSTRATION TEACHING

1. Recalling all of the demonstration teaching that you have observed, state why it was and was not helpful to you. How could its helpfulness have been increased?

2. How can you create a receptivity on the part of secondary school teachers for demonstration lessons? Consider all the objections that they are likely to raise and plan to anticipate each one of them by cogent reasons for demonstrations.



3. What kind of preparation of observers for a demonstration lesson is desirable? To what extent is this preparation a responsibility of the supervisor?

4. How should you plan to insure that observation of demonstration teaching becomes maximally effective in the improvement of teachers?

5. Consider the possibilities of using mimeographed reports of lessons and lesson summaries as substitutes for demonstration teaching. Would it be better to use them to supplement demonstration lessons or as a substitute? Which promises better results as an introduction to discussion of teaching illustrative of some principle or problem under discussion?

#### DIRECTED VISITING

1. Criticize the visiting by teachers that you have known to observe the work of other teachers in the same or in a different school. How could the objectionable features have been prevented?

2. How can the attitudes of secondary school teachers toward directed visits be improved? To what extent do you think effort should be made to develop good attitudes in teachers before observational visits are suggested or required?

3. Outline a plan that you think you as a supervisor could profitably use to make directed visits maximally profitable.

4. What should you do if a teacher returns from a directed visit "cocky" and self-satisfied? discouraged and lacking in confidence of his ability to succeed?

5. What should you do if a teacher returning from a directed visit reports: "I did not like Miss A's lesson in history. The pupils were listless and uninterested. They were not actually disorderly, but they were inattentive."

6. Criticize the following statements:

(a) Weak teachers will profit more than strong teachers from directed visits.

(b) Teachers do not like the proposal that they visit to observe the work of other teachers.

(c) Teachers object to having other teachers, especially their own colleagues, visit their classes.

7. Consider all of the administrative difficulties and decide how you could take care of them.

#### BIBLIOGRAPHY

C. J. Anderson and I. Jewell Simpson, *The Supervision of Rural Schools*, pp. 287-313. D. Appleton and Co., 1932.

A. S. Barr and W. H. Burton, *Supervision of Instruction*, pp. 414-423. D. Appleton and Co., 1926.



- Roland J. Bouthillier, "The Teacher's Individual Reading," *Catholic School Journal*, 36:299-300, November, 1936.
- Orville Brim, "The Supervising Principal as a Trouble-fixer or Educational Leader," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 12:413-419, September, 1926.
- William H. Burton, *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching*, pp. 326-334. D. Appleton and Co., 1922.
- E. C. Clark, "Directing the Observation Lesson," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 22:632-635, November, 1936.
- Francis M. Crowley, *The Catholic High-School Principal*, pp. 161-165. Bruce Publishing Co., 1936.
- Harl R. Douglass and Charles W. Boardman, *Supervision in Secondary Schools*, pp. 285-290. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934.
- Katherine M. Kennedy and J. R. Shannon, "An Experiment in Directing Observation," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 17:205-212, March, 1935.
- Evelyn Konigsberg, "Intra-Department Visiting at Richmond Hill," *Bulletin of High Points*, 18:71-74, New York Board of Education, May, 1936.
- George C. Kyte, *How to Supervise*, pp. 271-290. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930.
- Ada F. Liveright, "A Teacher's Professional Library," *Educational Outlook*, 10:222-232, May, 1936.
- Donald G. McGarey, "We Visit Other Schools," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, 11:368-369, February, 1937.
- D. R. Maxwell, *The Observation of Teaching*, p. 120. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917.
- Morley, E. E., "A Departure in Supervision of High School Teachers," *School Review*, 39:174-176, March, 1931.
- Gertrude E. Munn, *Demonstration Lessons*, pp. 276-281, Tenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association, 1931.
- Herbert W. Nutt, *The Supervision of Instruction*, pp. 138-162. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1920.
- "The Principal as a Supervisor." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. VII, No. 5, pp. 332-338. National Education Association, November, 1929.
- "Principal at Work on His Problems," pp. 122-124. *Research Bulletin*, Vol. IX, No. 2, National Education Association, March, 1931.
- Emma Reinhardt, "Teachers' Institutes in Illinois," *Elementary School Journal*, 31:25-34, September, 1930.
- C. R. Roberts and Robert A. Davis, "Reading Interests of Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 15:102-116, February, 1929.
- Reinhardt H. Ruhnke, "Improvement of Teaching Technique through



the Demonstration Lesson," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, 10:413-418, March, 1936.

William Carl Ruediger, "Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service," pp. 10-41, 82-84, United States Bureau of Education, *Bulletin*, 1911, No. 3.

Isidore Sass, "On Giving a 'Model' Lesson," *High Points*, pp. 50-55. New York Board of Education, September, 1937.

J. R. Shannon, "Demonstration Teaching and Directed Observation," *Educational Method*, 14:355-362, April, 1935.

L. M. Terman, "Growth through Professional Reading," *Journal of the National Education Association*, 17:137-138, May, 1928.

Douglas Waples, "A Program for the High School Teachers' Institute," *School Review*, 34:199-261, March, 1926.

Frank E. Willard, "The Summit Demonstration School," *Journal of the National Education Association*, 18:153-154, May, 1929.

Maxie N. Woodring, "The Use of the Stenographic Lesson in Improving Instruction," *Teachers College Record*, 37:504-517, March, 1936.



## CHAPTER XVII

---

### MEASUREMENT IN SUPERVISION

---

**Introduction.**—Whenever there is supervision there is measurement. By every suggestion that one procedure is better than another or that an observed piece of teaching is good or poor, the supervisor indicates that he has in some way made a measurement and arrived at a judgment. Such measurements are, of course, in general highly subjective and for several reasons inaccurate. As they are in practice inevitable and necessary, the challenge is to make them as valid and as reliable as possible and to use the results most effectively for the improvement of teaching.

Accustomed to make innumerable judgments every day without having them openly questioned by others, both supervisors and teachers seldom realize how inaccurate and variable they are. The official school examination has often attained a sanctity that it is far from deserving. This is especially true in European countries, where the most rigid selection of the intellectually ablest pupils has for years been attempted by a series of difficult and comprehensive examinations. The future career of every pupil depended upon his ability to answer questions to the satisfaction of those who judged his performance. During the past few years careful studies have shown that many and serious mistakes have been made: the questions frequently did not measure what they were intended to measure, and the judgments of one group of examiners were found to be very different from those of others. A pupil's fate, therefore, depended both on the questions that happened to be asked him and on the judges who happened to have been selected to pass on his answers. If such an unsatisfactory practice is current in Europe, where examinations have an historical importance and emphasis even greater than in our schools, we may well be skeptical of the validity and reliability of the measurements and the consequent judgments here.



Scientific studies of school examinations in the United States were undertaken much earlier than in Europe, and the results convincingly revealed the necessity not only of much more accurate measurements but also of the desirability of extending better techniques to measure more than mere ability to reproduce learned facts. This chapter cannot undertake to present the developed techniques of educational measurement, which are discussed at length in numerous books published during the past twenty years.<sup>1</sup> It is concerned only with the uses that the supervisor may make of them in his attempts to direct a corps of teachers to growth in power to educate youth. It will entirely neglect the uses for administration except as they overlap with and affect supervision.

With the development of techniques for measuring in education, some have fallaciously argued that supervision can be made altogether scientific. The factors in teaching are too numerous and too variable, especially in human relationships, for that ever to be possible or even desirable. Scientific measurement should be used to the extent of its profitable contribution, but no one should ever expect it to replace the personal supervision, which can and must adapt itself to constantly changing conditions. Teaching is too complex a process and consists of too many factors for which we do not have objective measures to be made entirely scientific.

**Purposes of Measurement for Supervision.**—The general requirement of measurement is that it gives objective, unbiased, impersonal evidence. It must as a rule be directed precisely at something that one desires to know, although there are ingenious practices of indirect measurement, as of intelligence. Such techniques assume that the extent to which one has learned or can do something is evidence of the extent to which one can learn or can do something else. A good measure should also give the same result when applied at another time or by another person. After valid and reliable objective evidence is produced, there still remains the problem of interpreting it and of deciding what it indicates in the way of subsequent decision and procedure. This inevitably involves subjective judgments. Some of the more important purposes of measurement for supervision are the following:

<sup>1</sup> See the bibliography at the end of this chapter.



1. *To aid in selecting teachers.* The selection of teachers is a first step in supervision, for everything done subsequently depends on the personnel with which the supervisor works. There have been numerous attempts <sup>1</sup> to devise objective measures that will indicate the probable success of a teacher, but so far none has been sufficiently valid or reliable to warrant its use as a sole or even as a highly important criterion. They indicate that the procedures ordinarily followed in selecting teachers leave much to be desired: personal appearance, college marks, the amount of professional training, experience, letters of recommendation, and the like, though helpful, cannot be trusted to indicate which candidate will be most successful. Pending the time when a good prognostic test may be developed, the supervisor should decide what characteristics he thinks the school needs in a teacher and then seek to get concerning them the most objective evidence possible on which he may formulate a judgment. Professional ambition and receptivity toward help in growing should certainly be considered.

2. *To understand teachers.* Objective tests can never replace, but they can profitably supplement, the continuous, sympathetic effort of a supervisor to understand the teachers with whom he works. His responsibility is to understand them not for rating and recommendations for discharge or retention, but rather for more effectively helping them to grow. Although every judgment that he makes will of necessity be subjective, he can improve his attempts at understanding (a) by deciding beforehand the main characteristics for which he is looking, (b) by being careful that general impressions, some outstanding feature, or personal likes and dislikes do not color his judgments, (c) by attempting impartially to realize the effect that each observed characteristic, whether or not it is under the control of the teacher, has or can be made to have upon the learning by pupils, and (d) by constantly building up a configuration of the whole teacher, not allowing any element to have undue emphasis.

There have been numerous attempts to build scales by which teachers may be rated. With those that purport to give a single

<sup>1</sup> See, for example, E. W. Tiegs, *An Evaluation of Some Techniques of Teacher Selection*, Public School Publishing Co., 1928. Other items in the bibliography at the end of this chapter treat of teacher selection.



index of a teacher's efficiency supervision is not greatly concerned. Suffice it to say that for this purpose none of them is sufficiently satisfactory for practical use, especially when they weight each item and add up the weights to get a total score. Any characteristic that is outstandingly good or bad invalidates such a technique.

But rating scales may be helpful to a supervisor in two ways. First, any carefully constructed list of the characteristics considered important in a teacher will suggest some which he may have previously overlooked or to which he had given an improper evaluation in his attempt to understand a teacher. And, second, it may prove helpful to a supervisor's understanding if a teacher first uses it to make a self-rating and then uses that as the subject of a conference in which there is a mutual attempt at planning for professional growth. The construction of a scale for such a purpose may properly be undertaken by the entire staff working through a committee, which will use other published scales as a basis.

3. *To reveal to teachers their own strengths and weaknesses.* The preceding purpose must, of course, be achieved, at least in part, before this one can wisely be attempted. As argued elsewhere at length, a supervisor should lay primary emphasis on making a teacher conscious of his strengths, of those things that he does well or that he gives promise of learning to do unusually well. To a large extent the teacher should be left to become aware of his own weaknesses or led subtly to discover them for himself. Having done so he will be more eager to seek and to accept help. The use of measurement, as far as it is possible, for this purpose has been discussed in the preceding section.

4. *To reveal to teachers wherein their teaching has been successful and unsuccessful.* Objective measurement is especially helpful in furnishing data that may be used in the achievement of this purpose. Tests exist or can be devised for measuring with a high degree of validity and reliability the extent to which teaching has attained almost any clearly stated objective. The supervisor must be careful, however, in interpreting the results of such tests to take into consideration all the factors. The achievement of a class may be in large measure conditioned by the homogeneity of grouping, the intelligence of the pupils, their



home environments, their previous preparation, their acquired habits of work, and the like, factors beyond the control of the teacher and for the results of which he should be neither credited nor blamed. But whatever the conditioning factors, the teacher should be helped by all the obtainable objective evidence to know as precisely as possible the extent to which his teaching has achieved the desired objectives. Such knowledge will be helpful and stimulating in planning further instruction for other pupils as well as for these.

5. *To challenge teachers to greater and more effective effort.* When teachers are made cognizant of the achievements of their pupils as impersonally and objectively measured, they are usually receptive to supervisory help, especially if the evidence reveals that the achievement is not as great nor as uniform as was hoped and expected. The supervisor can stimulate teachers by helping them to understand the difference between absolute achievements—that is, what the pupils manifest that they have actually learned and remembered—and achievements relative to ability. A score that is creditable to one pupil with low intelligence may be shameful evidence of opportunity neglected with his more gifted classmate. And many scores to have practical meaning need to be interpreted in terms of the degree of mastery necessary for use or of standards set by the attainments of other pupils of a similar degree of advancement. Relatively few teachers are likely without supervisory help to interpret the scores of tests with sufficient completeness to be stimulated properly and adequately to more effective work later.

Another stimulus to teachers from a study of test scores is the challenge of problems thus made evident. As Dewey has emphasized, real thinking begins in a consciousness of difficulty. Supervision can perform a distinct service by helping teachers to become aware, through a study of the objective measurement of achievement by their pupils, of the problems that must be solved in order to achieve better results. The matter of supervisory experimentation will be discussed more fully in the next chapter.

6. *To aid in the classification of pupils.* Objective evidence such as can be gained from comprehensive tests of achievement is necessary for placing pupils in classes where they can learn



best along with others of similar advancement. It is better than promotion recommendations from teachers in the same school or in some other from which the pupils may have been transferred. This evidence needs to be supplemented, however, by knowledge of the pupils' intelligence, ambition, willingness to work, and study habits.

Although all the problems of homogeneous grouping with respect to ability have not been solved, there is general approval of the almost universal practice of placing together in classes pupils of like advancement, and this is made possible by the evidence obtained from standard achievement and intelligence tests, supplemented by such data as mentioned above and by consideration of social maturity and nervous stability. The problems of homogeneous grouping, the arguments for and against it, the results of experimental studies, the attitudes of administrators, teachers, and pupils toward it, the extent to which it is used, the bases for forming homogeneous groups, and the like are well presented by J. Murray Lee.<sup>1</sup> The latest evidence of success from the homogeneous grouping by pupils of the highest ability suggests that teachers know less about adapting learning experiences to them than to their less gifted fellows. Here is one of the important challenges to supervision. Whatever the degree of homogeneity in the classification of pupils, it is obviously desirable that to each group teachers be assigned who are peculiarly competent for their instruction and that both subject-matter and methods of teaching be adapted to the manifested abilities.

7. *To measure the achievement of pupils.* The most common purpose for the use of measurement is to ascertain the achievement of pupils in order that a decision may be made concerning their "credit" and mark, and readiness for promotion. A supervisor should insure that more than this results. Achievement tests should reveal also the needs of reteaching, the possession by individual pupils of special abilities, and the wisdom of adapting subject-matter and methods to the capacities of individuals as well as of the class. Administration may be interested in the median achievement of a class as compared with norms, but supervision is concerned with what tests reveal

<sup>1</sup> J. M. Lee, *A Guide to Measurement in Secondary Schools*, pp. 201-222, plus a selected bibliography. D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936.



about the achievement, the progress, and the needs of each individual pupil. Standard comprehensive tests that are scored objectively are likely to give more of the desired information than the usual type of examination made by teachers.

At this point it should be noted that the norms of standardized tests, the median scores made by a large number of representative pupils in school systems scattered over the country, should not be considered the ideal at which teaching should aim. It may be interesting to know how the median achievement of any particular class compares with that in other schools, but supervision is concerned to see that each pupil achieves at least the minimum that is necessary to promote his own educational growth. In some matters the minimum will be no less than complete mastery; in others it will be such achievement as use requires. Moreover, supervision will need to consider the abilities of the pupils, their previous preparation, and the like before judging that a national "standard" is too high or too low for a particular class.

Before teachers select or prepare achievement tests the supervisor should see to it that they recognize that there are different kinds of knowledge which are satisfactory each for special purposes. There is a knowledge that can be used for recognition: one "knows" his father or a dime or a robin without being able to give a complete and accurate description. There is also a desirable knowledge of every detail so that one can reproduce an object such as building a radio set or setting up apparatus for a laboratory experiment or can represent it pictorially. There is a knowledge that enables one to use facts or things without understanding the reasons or the details. Contrast the knowledge that an inventor, an expert mechanic employed in manufacture, a repair man in a garage, and a driver have of an automobile. A peculiar kind of knowledge is desirable and necessary for the person who has to use it; it may be desirable but not necessary for any one of the others. And there is a knowledge of causes and principles which, though often sought by schools for all pupils, is achieved, retained, and used with satisfaction only by a relatively few superior minds. Tests should be selected or devised to measure achievement of the kind or kinds of knowledge considered desirable and possible for the group being taught.



*In terms of declared and accepted purposes measurement should be made of every pupil's achievement, retention, and ability to use.* Supervision has the responsibility to see that teachers understand and accept this thesis and that they continuously use it. Every test should be formulated in terms of the purposes of the teaching and of the learning. It cannot be satisfactory to measure merely the acquisition of the tools with which the purposes may be attained. One cannot read French, of course, without knowing the vocabulary and a certain amount of grammar, but a test of vocabulary and grammar does not satisfactorily measure one's ability to read French. If a purpose of the teaching of history is to inculcate desirable attitudes and to develop a sense of responsibility for sharing in government, it cannot be satisfactory to measure merely pupils' knowledge of the Parthians, of the development of the English Parliament, of the Monroe Doctrine, or of the Electoral College. If a purpose of mathematics is to train pupils to think logically to a proved conclusion, tests should measure the power to think thus not only regarding the hands of a watch and the unequal progress of two travelers, but also regarding such problems as life will more assuredly present.

If supervision can lead teachers to a consciousness of responsibility for measuring pupils' achievements in terms of declared purposes, it will have gone a long way not only toward improving the effectiveness of education, but also toward revealing the necessity of modifying the curriculum and the methods of instruction in such ways as to insure a more complete achievement of the purposes for which the educational program is set up.

Tests that measure merely temporary achievement cannot be satisfactory. Life problems cannot be solved by "having known." Therefore there should be continuous and cumulative tests of the retention of knowledge in ways such as it is likely to be used later. If there is no probability of its being used later, the wisdom of teaching it in the first place is brought into question. Of course some knowledge has only temporary value, being scaffolding, as it were, for the building of a permanent structure—principles, habits, and attitudes; but the permanence of these latter should be periodically measured. There should be no such thing as "a passing mark" that is a license and an



encouragement for forgetting the important things that have been learned.

And measurement should not be confined to abstract and unrelated knowledge. The value of knowledge is assured only if pupils learn under direction to use it. They may learn application later and independently, but it is not assured or even likely that they will do so. The only economy and insurance is that when they learn the principles of paragraph structure they are at the same time taught to write good paragraphs, when they learn to solve equations in algebra they are taught how to apply the knowledge in problems of physics or chemistry, when they learn definitions they are directed to apply them to the attainment of some useful end. If the supervisor insures that tests are selected or devised to measure the ability to use knowledge as well as the acquirement and retention of the knowledge itself, teaching will assuredly become more effective than it is now or ever has been in the past.

8. *To measure the progress of pupils.* Not achievement but achievements is what testing is concerned with. There is no such thing as one goal of achievement which is to be attained as a symbol of readiness for graduation; education is concerned with a never-ending succession of achievements that are indicative of growth, self-impelled growth in desirable directions as a habit being the true end of education. Therefore tests should measure not only progress but also the extent to which that is contributing to habituated power of independent growth. Teachers and pupils alike are encouraged and challenged by objective evidence of progress. It has repeatedly been shown experimentally that knowledge of progress is a potent incentive to work and achievement and that praise and encouragement are more effective than censure and threats.

To measure progress two points are of course necessary. In beginning a foreign language all pupils are supposed to start at zero; but in most other subjects they begin with varied amounts of knowledge and skills previously acquired. Therefore if progress is to be measured there must be comprehensive tests not only periodically during the course, but also at its beginning. Not infrequently some pupils will know more when a course starts than others know at the end of the semester, this being peculiarly true in such subjects as English composition, literary



and musical appreciation; art, shop, home economics, and even in general science. There is considerable evidence to justify the statement that the most retarded pupils in our schools are the ablest. In order, then, that progress may be insured, a teacher must learn what pupils know at the beginning of an educational experience and periodically thereafter.

As will be explained later in the discussion of scaled tests, teachers should know that only when pupils start with no knowledge or skills whatever or when the zero point is located can a score on a test be properly considered a percentage of gain. One can say that scores of 20 and 40 on two equivalent unscaled tests given at the beginning and at the end of a course indicate a substantial progress, but not that the gain is 100 per cent.

9. *To insure more accurate marks.* Whatever may be argued against reporting marks for pupils in a course, they are likely to be used by teachers to determine or to justify their recommendations for promotion. Marks given on a subjective basis vary enormously according to such factors as the teacher's standards, which are influenced by the general ability of the class or of a few outstanding members of it, his knowledge of what each pupil knows and can do independently, his personal like or dislike of a pupil, his emotional state at the time of assigning marks, the pupil's previous record and behavior, and the like. The results are, of course, of great unreliability: a pupil may get a passing or a failing mark because of any of the factors mentioned above rather than in accord with what he actually knows or can do. The unreliability of marks is still further increased by the variability among different teachers and in different schools. It has been shown by having compositions from numerous schools rated by competent judges using a standard scale that some pupils considered by their teachers barely passing in the freshman year actually wrote better than other senior-class pupils considered by their teachers as highly superior.<sup>1</sup> It is obvious that marks need improving.<sup>2</sup>

Objective tests of achievement will help a teacher improve the reliability of his marks. If the test is designed to measure

<sup>1</sup> Thomas H. Briggs, "English Composition Scales in Use," *Teachers College Record*, 23:423-452, November, 1922.

<sup>2</sup> See J. M. Lee, *op. cit.*, pp. 226-265, for an excellent discussion, with a selected bibliography, on the use of measurement in marking.



achievement in terms of the declared purposes of the course, it will have improved validity also. Any objective test should be so comprehensive as to cover all important material studied; the larger the number of distributed questions, other things being equal, the greater the reliability. The objectivity of the scoring will reduce the effects of such factors as have been mentioned. A supervisor should help teachers to realize just what they should mark, whatever evidence they use; deportment, industry, regularity of attendance, neatness of papers, penmanship, spelling, previous record, and the like should never be allowed to influence a judgment of the degree of achievement of the course objectives.

Standard achievement tests will prove helpful, but they seldom are sufficient to measure achievement in any but the most conventional courses. The more that progressive teachers prepare and use educative experiences appropriate for developing the pupils to be taught, the more they must supplement objective standard achievement tests by others of their own making. Ordinarily the teachers of any school will need to be convinced that they should improve their examinations and be helped by the supervisor to make tests that are objective, comprehensive, valid, and reliable. Several teachers of the same subject working together are likely to produce tests that result in more accurate marks than one teacher working alone. Such tests are difficult to make well and require much time and skilled labor; but there is an ultimate economy, for the items that prove to be good can be put into a reservoir which may be drawn on when subsequent examinations are to be made. Pupils are not likely to remember and to pass on to their fellows any significant number of objective test questions; but even if they do, the pupils later using them will be learning what the teachers wish them to learn.

Objective tests will not determine what the passing mark is, nor should they do so. They will merely furnish more reliable evidence that the pupils have learned enough to be permitted to drop the subject or be promoted to an advanced section.

Confronted by the distribution of scores, however they are expressed, a teacher has to make an assignment of such marks as the school requires. How he shall do that is outside the prov-



ince of this discussion. The matter has been adequately discussed by Lee in the reference earlier made and by other authorities. Supervision is primarily concerned that the marks are as just an estimate as possible of each pupil's competence to drop the subject or to be promoted to advanced study.

10. *To ascertain which pupils are doing work commensurate with their abilities.* Objective measurement of the intelligence of pupils frequently reveals abilities which are not applied so as to achieve the school success that is easily possible. When there is even a suspicion of failure of a pupil to work up to the level of his natural ability the school has a challenge to discover the reason and to remove the cause. Often a test of personality adjustment may be helpful in diagnosing the difficulty. In a sense the failure of a pupil to do work commensurate with his ability, even though he "pass" the course, is just as serious as his failure to meet the standard for promotion. Supervision should see that as far as possible every pupil is so classified and encouraged that he attains the success of which he is by natural gifts capable.

11. *To discover attitudes of pupils.* It is increasingly recognized that the attitude of a pupil toward the school, his teacher, a particular subject, serious work, and even life itself is a strong factor in conditioning success. Teachers cannot always be relied on to discover, to report, or to attempt improvement of harmful attitudes, partly because they may not appreciate their importance, partly because they are difficult to recognize and to identify, and partly because they may be hesitant to report an attitude for which they are at least in part responsible. Therefore supervision has a responsibility to make teachers aware of the importance of attitudes,<sup>1</sup> more competent to identify them, and more skilled to improve them. Objective tests such as are listed in Chapter IV of Lee's *A Guide to Measurement in Secondary Schools*, where the subject is well discussed, will prove helpful. But they will need to be supplemented by personal concern and ingenious informal investigation of every pupil. There is no one formula for improving attitudes. The job is complex and difficult enough to challenge the best and continued effort of both supervisor and teachers.

<sup>1</sup> See Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*, pp. 370-439; also Percival M. Symonds, *Diagnosing Personality and Conduct*, Century Co., 1931.



12. *To acquaint teachers with pupils' needs.* Although teachers are always more or less alert to discover and to satisfy the needs of their pupils, both as a group and as individuals, they can always be helped by what objective tests reveal. The ordinary tests cannot reveal what the curriculum should be, but they frequently give evidence of failure to attain what is desired and expected from the educational experiences provided. Means of achieving this purpose are more fully discussed later under the head "Diagnostic Tests."

13. *To stimulate pupils.* Numerous researches have reported the stimulating effects of pupils' being informed of their progress. In a series of drills those pupils who are told what their scores are invariably make more rapid improvement than those who are not told. When praise and encouragement are added, the results are still better. Teachers to some extent recognize this and use marks periodically to afford stimulation. But the scores on carefully selected or prepared objective tests are superior in that they are more reliable and in that they remove from the pupils any suspicion of partiality. The interest that secondary school pupils manifest in marks and in scores on objective tests is evidence of the possibilities of using them as stimuli.

Modern educational theory deprecates emphasis on marks, which at best can be only external stimuli. Ideally the emphasis should be placed on motivation, which supplies an appreciative desire for achievement because of the identification with oneself of some activity or object with consequent advantage. But human nature and traditional practice being what they are, external stimuli will continue to be used in schools, and therefore supervision is concerned to see that they are used wisely and with as little hindrance as possible to ideal education. The natural spirit of competition with others should be changed as far as it can be to competition with self, leading to an effort each time to surpass the record previously made. This stimulus is especially effective in drill exercises, but it can also be extended to other types of learning. The more objective and reliable the scores, the greater the incentive can be made.

14. *To emphasize the need of mastery and retention.* The attitude of complacency with partial and temporary learning so commonly manifested by pupils in our secondary schools



is neither natural nor wholesome. It is the result of the common practice of giving passing marks, either daily or after brief periods of study, for such partial achievement as would not prove useful in life situations and then freeing pupils from responsibility for retaining and using what they have learned. This attitude will persist for most pupils as long as it is permitted. The only cure is a change of attitude by the school itself, a change that requires mastery when mastery is desirable and demands retention as evidenced by ability to use knowledge and skills continually in the satisfaction of realized needs.

Change in pupils' attitudes will be caused primarily by their being made to understand and appreciate the importance of mastery, retention, and ability to use what they are expected to learn. Unless it is of convincing value to them they will continue to be satisfied with "getting by" with anything that will satisfy formal requirements. But after appreciation the establishment of new and desired attitudes will be accelerated by the frequent use of objective tests that demand accurate and cumulatively retained knowledge for the attainment of ends of recognized worth. Fortunately for traditional curricula and perhaps in this respect unfortunately for real education, many pupils will work for mastery and for retention merely that they may have the satisfaction of achievement which comes from solving problems of little or no value in themselves. A challenge to supervision is to see that increasingly this satisfaction comes from doing worthwhile things.

15. *To reveal to pupils their own needs.* Real motivation results when pupils appreciate the need of learning for the satisfaction of their own appreciated wants. Most of such motivation will come, of course, from teachers' using in class challenges that have arisen naturally in the experiences of the pupils, from setting up situations that reveal needs, and from bringing into the consciousness of pupils existent or assured future needs that can be satisfied by mastery of certain necessary learnings. Objective tests are a powerful means of a convincing revelation of needs. Not any and all tests will result in this appreciation, of course; the teacher must carefully select or devise tests for this purpose. The teaching test, which will later be discussed, is especially valuable for this purpose.



16. *To reveal and to emphasize to pupils the objectives of their educational experiences, the relative values of their constituent parts, and the organization for effective learning.* That pupils should understand and approve the objectives in every unit of learning has already been argued.<sup>1</sup> It is also important that they appreciate the relative values of each constituent part of the unit, which they are frequently prevented from doing by a teacher's insistence that details be learned apart from their use. And it is desirable that they understand how the course of study is organized as a whole and in its major division to facilitate learning. This they seldom do. This complex purpose is most easily achieved by motivating explanations as the course develops, but achievement is helped by teaching tests and toward the end of each large unit by open-book examinations that are prepared with this purpose in mind. The supervisor cannot expect the success possible merely by explanation of the need and by argument for the use of tests for the achievement of the purpose. In this matter especially he will have to work with individual teachers so that they can coöperatively learn how to construct tests that will contribute to the desired end and how effectively to use the results.

17. *To furnish evidence that can be used to help parents more intelligently to coöperate with the school and with other educational agencies.* The opinions of teachers regarding pupils derived from daily contact can be of inestimable value in helping parents to understand their own children better and to plan for their futures. But parents are not always convinced that teachers' opinions are impartial. They are much more likely to respect and to be influenced by the results of objective tests. Therefore in conferences with parents to enable them better to coöperate with the school and to utilize other available educational agencies, teachers can profitably use the results of tests of intelligence, of personality adjustment, including attitudes, and of achievement. The school authorities should be careful, while seeking to help parents, at the same time to seek and to profit from their more intimate and more comprehensive knowledge of their children, even if it is not always impartial and accurate. What parents think or can be led to think about their children is what will determine their attitudes and their subsequent action,

<sup>1</sup> See Chapter XII of this book.



not merely regarding the children themselves but about the school as well.

18. *To aid in guidance.*<sup>1</sup> The entire program of guidance is dependent on the completeness of the school's understanding of each individual pupil. To supplement and to correct such knowledge as is cumulated by the teachers and pooled for the use of the agent or agents responsible for social, educational, and vocational guidance, tests of various kinds should of course be used. Besides the usual intelligence and achievement tests, use should be made of personality adjustment tests and, when reliable ones are available, of prognostic tests of special aptitudes. All of such tests need discriminating interpretation in the light of other accumulated knowledge of the pupils, and because of their imperfect reliability care must be taken to use with confidence only such conclusions as can be supported by previous knowledge and by common sense. Attention should be focused on what the tests indicate that an individual *can* do in the future rather than entirely on what he has done in the past.<sup>2</sup>

19. *To ascertain what organization and administration most facilitate teaching and learning.* This implies that a principal will be continually experimenting to ascertain the best kind of organization for the school as a whole and for the various minor units, the attainment of the ends of education rather than administrative convenience always being kept in mind. Illustration of the kinds of special problems that will be considered are class size and homogeneous grouping. There are also many problems of administration that will come to the mind of any experienced principal. Some practices that are easy for the principal to administer may be positively detrimental to the educational program; certainly one alternative is better than another. To reach decisions the principal should rely not on general impressions, either his own or those of the teachers, but on evidence objectively procured from adequate tests. Measured experimentation should be carried on continually in every school, even though the most exact scientific techniques

<sup>1</sup> See Percival M. Symonds, "The Testing Program in the High School," *School Review*, 40:97-108, February, 1932.

<sup>2</sup> Max McConn in Hawkes, Lindquist, and Mann's *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations*, pp. 443-478, lays special emphasis on the uses of tests for guidance. For a summary of important studies and a list of tests approved for use in guidance, see Lee, *op. cit.*, pp. 70-140.



are not possible. The results of rough measurement are usually better than mere impressions.

20. *To ascertain results from the experimental use of novel educational experiences, unusual organization of the course, and methods of teaching.* Experimentation of this nature is even more important than that mentioned in the preceding paragraph. It is not sufficient that the school try new procedures; it should learn to what extent they are more or less effective than the conventional ones. Obviously "impressions" of results are too subjective and consequently influenced by extraneous factors to be relied on when making a decision as to whether or not the experiment has been successful. Objective tests are necessary to give measurements in which all may have confidence.

21. *To measure the general efficiency of the school.* There are two criteria by which the success of a school can be measured: one is the ideal that is hoped and planned for; the other is the achievement of other similar schools. In using either, objective tests are necessary to give an index that approaches reliability of the achievements of the pupils, individuals as well as groups. A comparison of the scores of two schools is interesting and may result in satisfaction at superiority or in stimulation for greater effort because of inferiority to the "standard." But it must not be forgotten that comparison of achievement scores, unless the conditioning factors are similar if not exactly the same, may lead to fallacious conclusions. Differences in pupils' native intelligence, in previous preparation, in study habits, in maturity, in seriousness of aim, in length of time in the school, and in regularity of attendance may affect achievement results more than the curriculum or the methods of teaching. Departures from "standards," whether favorable or unfavorable, direct attention to the probable causes, which should be used or modified so as to improve as far as possible the accomplishment of every individual pupil.

But whatever comparisons are made with achievements in other schools, supervision should insist that objective tests be used to indicate the extent to which the school has been successful in approaching the ideals which it has set for itself. There can be no real satisfaction to a school in finding that its pupils make fewer errors than pupils in other schools when



nothing less than complete mastery is necessary. It is continual comparison with what a school knows its pupils should achieve which gives evidence that directs toward greater efficiency. Objective tests can at best measure only a part of educational achievement, however; they will need to be supplemented by subjective estimates of growth for the satisfactory measurement of which no tests have as yet been devised.

22. *To estimate teaching efficiency.* This purpose differs from the one just stated only in that it concerns the efficiency of an individual teacher in a single situation. All that was said in the preceding two paragraphs applies here. Although there have been many efforts to prepare tests that estimate teaching ability by measuring professional knowledge, judgments regarding stated situations, and attitudes, none of them has been sufficiently successful to result in instruments for practical use. The evidences of conspicuously high or low scores may indicate to the supervisor factors that deserve attention, either for further use or for improvement, but no such tests can be relied on as indicating with dependable reliability actual success in teaching. The only criterion of such success is the changes resulting in the pupils themselves,<sup>1</sup> and all of these changes are not only difficult to determine, but they cannot be attributed entirely to the instruction by the teacher. There are many factors affecting growth.

Such tests as are available or as can be devised should be used at the beginning of the learning experience to set up a point of departure and at the end to measure the extent of growth. Far too few such tests at present exist. Even those that can be used should be supplemented by measures, objective or subjective, of the growth as affected by the other factors. The more each factor—such as adapted subject-matter, method, directed study, personal adjustment, and the like—can be isolated and its effects measured, the more practical will be the results for indicating what supervisory help is needed. The results of objective tests are likely to be more impressive to a teacher than their reliability warrants. A supervisor should, therefore, be careful in interpretation and scrupulous in the use of the resulting data. Teaching efficiency should be measured

<sup>1</sup> See W. L. Connor, "A New Method of Rating Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research*, 1:338-358, May, 1920.



in terms of the changes in all pupils individually and not merely in terms of the average change.

23. *To procure data with which to furnish the community an audit of the success of the school.* The public deserves and should demand periodic audits of its investment for education. The more objective the evidence of success, the more convincing the reports are likely to be. Although it is much more difficult to present such evidence of the educational growth of pupils than it is of the number enrolled, of the percentage of perfect attendance, and of the retardation, every effort should be made to do so. Many schools have found it highly helpful to place before the public objective evidence of the pupils' growth in graphic representation that is easy to understand and far more impressive than mere figures would be.

### MEASUREMENT PRACTICES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

**The Validity of Tests.**—The most common use of measurement in secondary schools is in the periodic tests and final examinations in courses. With these everyone is familiar. Unfortunately the tests ordinarily used have for two reasons been inadequate. In the first place, they usually attempt to measure acquisition merely of the tools of learning—such as vocabulary, grammar, translation that neglects the importance of the ideas conveyed, the ability to manipulate figures and to apply formulae, the memorization of facts, and the like—and have as a rule neglected the objectives that really justify the educational experiences. This criticism can easily be proved by comparing the standard tests in any subject, to say nothing of those made by teachers for their own use, with the statements of the objectives to justify the place of the subject in the curriculum. After studying 56,000 questions in 2250 sets of examination papers in history used in 1125 cities in all parts of the country, Osburn reported that hardly any of the questions related directly to the professed objectives of the subject.<sup>1</sup> All tests, both formal and informal, should measure the extent of achievement of the ends toward which teaching has been, or should have been, directed. When they do, they are said to be valid.

<sup>1</sup> W. J. Osburn, *Are We Making Good at Teaching History?* p. 63. Public School Publishing Co., 1926.



**The Reliability of Tests.**—The tests ordinarily used are defective, in the second place, because they do not accurately measure what they are intended to measure. In technical language, they are not *reliable*; they do not measure with a satisfactory degree of consistency. Often they are insufficiently comprehensive, measuring samples, taken here and there from the course, which are neither representative nor emphatic of relative values. Everyone is familiar from his own experience with the happy or disastrous effects of the small number of questions that happened to be selected for an examination, and it is rare that the questions asked indicate at all adequately the values which make the course important. Few examinations in the usual procedure can be scored so objectively that the responses would be evaluated the same by different teachers or by the same teacher at two different readings.

**The Training of Teachers.**—The current movement to improve measurement by making it more valid, more comprehensive, and more reliable has found a receptive response from teachers, who recognize the weaknesses in common practice. All schools of education now give courses in the construction of better tests and in the appreciation of the merits of those constructed by experts. But there is a lack of instruction, which consequently should be supplied by supervisors, in the interpretation and use of test results. Until both supervisors and teachers have learned more of how to make test results effective, schools that can afford the expense should employ an expert for promoting this purpose. When an expert cannot be provided, the teachers can be given by the supervisor an understanding of the fundamental principles of test construction and of the interpretation and use of the results. Perhaps some teacher who is especially interested will be stimulated to such directed or independent study that he will become sufficiently expert to help all of his colleagues.

**Testing Practices in Secondary Schools.**—Data concerning the uses of tests and examinations by secondary school teachers have been published by Lee and Siegel in *Testing Practices of High School Teachers*.<sup>1</sup> In this monograph one can find the frequency with which teachers give tests, made by themselves or by others; the types and numbers of questions in teacher-

<sup>1</sup> *Bulletin No. 9*, 1936, United States Office of Education, p. 42. Price 10 cents.



made tests; the practices with regard to final examinations; the uses made of tests; the attitudes of teachers toward the giving of tests and toward various types; and other similar information. These data, it should be noted, do not indicate ideals or standards; they merely report the practices of 1600 teachers in representative high schools.

**Desirable Characteristics of Measurement.—**

*Validity.* A complete measure of a pupil's achievement after having an educational experience or unit of study would require the retention and the application of everything necessary for the satisfaction of the purposes for which it had been planned and taught. If it did this, it would have completely the first desirable characteristic, validity. Teaching and learning should be so directed by conscious and convincing purposes that the learning is characterized by a continuous series of valid tests, which indicate to both teacher and learner the readiness and the possibility of proceeding toward the approved objectives. Obviously the more formal examinations at the end of one or more units of learning, those that are primarily for the purpose of providing the data for judging to what extent pupils are ready to proceed to other experiences, cannot be completely comprehensive. They have to sample the entire field covered, as wisely as possible selecting for measurement those facts that best represent the values of most importance. They should, therefore, first of all attempt to measure achievements of the most important objectives; and second, make as large a sampling of these as possible.

Examinations cannot be valid for a unit of learning when they measure only the tools necessary for achieving objectives. It is perfectly proper to test a knowledge of facts and of principles, but this should be a cumulative daily procedure. The final test should be of the ability to apply them to manifest the successful attainment of the changes that the unit has attempted to produce.

*Reliability.* A second desirable characteristic of a test is that it should be reliable. It should consistently measure what it is intended to measure. It should yield the same judgment when the responses of the pupils are judged by the teacher a second time, or when another teacher makes a judgment from the responses. Numerous studies have reported that the examina-



tions most commonly used in schools are highly unreliable; the judgments by teachers are so subjective and they so lack definite standards on which they are based that there is an unjustifiable amount of chance in determining the fate of a pupil. This unreliability can be demonstrated by having several teachers score almost any examination paper.

The first step in improving reliability is to make the scoring of a test as objective as possible—that is, there must be decision beforehand just what credit will be given for any anticipated answer. If there is agreement, for example, to give half credit to a pupil using the right method in solving an equation and half for a correct answer, teachers will more nearly agree on the credit earned than if there is no previous agreement. The new-type tests are usually more reliable than the essay type chiefly because they force responses in a limited range, the value of every one being previously determined. The more extensive the sampling from the learning unit and the larger the number of items in the test, the more reliable the results are likely to be.

Statisticians have devised formulae for determining an index of reliability, ranging from  $-1.00$ , which indicates that the test is completely unreliable, through  $0.00$ , which indicates that two sets of judgments have no relation each with the other, to  $+1.00$ , which indicates that the two judges are in complete harmony. The judges may agree and yet both be wrong, of course; but when there are numerous judgments by each, as in a test of a hundred items, this is not likely to be the case. This index, called the coefficient of correlation, anyone who knows elementary mathematics can easily learn to compute. When it is below  $+.70$  for the consistency of two ratings on a set of test papers it indicates an unsatisfactory degree of reliability.

In order to give readers who are not technically trained a rough idea of what coefficients of correlation of various sizes mean, there are presented in Table X indexes of relationship between factors that are more or less familiar.

When it is not convenient to have the results of a test scored by two teachers or twice by the same teacher, an index of reliability can be found by comparing the achievement by the pupils on two halves of the examination—say the responses on the even- and on the odd-numbered items; this index will be more accurate if “corrected for attenuation.”



TABLE X

## ILLUSTRATIONS OF COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION OF VARIOUS SIZES

BETWEEN	
.95	First and second scores on a good intelligence test
.90	Characteristics of identical twins
.83	Height and weight of children 5 to 15 years of age
.75	Characteristics of fraternal twins
.62	Average of marks in high school and in first year of college
.55	School marks in subjects more or less akin
.50	Characteristics of siblings
.50	Height of fathers and adult sons
.40	Height and weight of women
.30	School marks in subjects supposed to have little in common
.25	Height and weight of men
.20	Intelligence and teaching success
.00	Physical beauty and church affiliations
-.30	Age and success in an academic high school subject

A group of teachers may not be interested or may not feel themselves competent to determine a statistical index of reliability. Even without this they can get a pretty good idea of reliability by ranking the pupils by their achievements on two random halves of a test and then comparing by observation the two ranks that each pupil gets. The impression is often strengthened by writing in two columns the names of the pupils in order of their achievements and then drawing lines to connect the two ranks of each one. The more nearly horizontal the lines are, the more reliable the test is seen to be.

To be a reliable measure of the abilities of a class a test should result in a wide distribution of the pupils. We know more about the weights of individuals when pound-intervals are used than when they are classified merely as fat, medium, or thin. An ideal test should contain items that range from an ease so great that everyone can succeed to a difficulty that cannot be mastered by any. To test lifting ability we should have to begin with some weights on which nobody would fail and proceed by gradual steps up to those so heavy that nobody could get them off the ground. In a normal class of considerable size the scores should group themselves roughly in the form of a Gaussian curve, the largest number at or near the median and the numbers diminishing with more or less regularity toward failure and toward success. The farther pupils are from the median, the fewer they will be. A skewed (lop-sided) curve or



an otherwise irregular distribution indicates that the class is not composed of a random sampling of humanity but is to an unusual degree homogeneous, that the number tested is not sufficient to afford a representative group, or that the test is to an extent either invalid or unreliable or both.

*Economies.* It is also desirable that tests are of such nature that they can be constructed, administered, and scored with an economy of time and effort. No good test can be prepared on the spur of the moment with any reasonable expectation that it will have validity or reliability. By a little coöperative study and experimentation a supervisor can lead teachers to a realization of this fact. The harder job that he has is to help them to learn by study of the principles presented in books on measurement and by directed practice how to make good tests, to administer and score them, to interpret the results, and to use them in improving the effectiveness of their teaching. Teachers can best be motivated to accept this complex challenge if they realize the superiority of good tests and their possibilities for helpfulness. They will be most likely to continue their use if preparation does not consume an inordinate amount of time.

It should be realized in the beginning of a supervisory project to improve measurement that the making of good tests is a difficult and a time-consuming task. Ultimate economy of both time and effort can be effected by preserving for re-use the test questions that prove to be effective in measuring the achievements of the pupils. In reading examination papers the teachers should mark those questions that evidence such characteristics as are desired, and those are the ones that can economically be saved for use in preparing new tests. Those that are too easy, too hard, ambiguous, not clear, resulting in answers that are difficult to evaluate soundly, and the like should be discarded. A little study of the questions that have been used and of their responses will not only prove economical in the long run, but will also improve the quality of future examinations.

When there are several teachers of the same subject a supervisor should have them coöperatively prepare the periodic formal tests. This should result in economy of time and effort, and it should also result in a desirable integration of the group. Of course care should be taken that a reasonable amount of



variation be permitted because no two sections of classes in the same subject should be expected to do precisely the same work. But what the examinations are chiefly expected to measure, the achievement of the major stated objectives, is largely sought in common by all.

It is desirable that formal tests be reasonably easy to administer. The ideal test of achievement is sometimes impossible because it would require a measurement of activities and attitudes some years after the boys and girls have left school. Lifelike situations in examinations are desirable and in so far as they can be presented under the limitations of the school they should be used. The common paper and pencil examination, if it consists of numerous questions, should be mimeographed or printed so that each individual can have a copy, though well-prepared new-type tests can be dictated without seriously impairing their reliability. The more thinking and the less writing an examination requires of pupils, the better. Such matters as neatness, penmanship, and spelling should not affect the estimate of what the examination is primarily intended to measure.

### NEW-TYPE AND ESSAY EXAMINATIONS

**Essay Examinations Impeached.**—Examinations of the conventional essay type, consisting of a small number of questions each requiring an individual written answer, began seriously to be impeached a generation ago. It was shown that they are often invalid because of their failure to measure the important objectives of teaching, and because of the limitations imposed by the brevity of the testing period, most of the pupils' time being consumed by writing, and because of the ambiguity of carelessly prepared questions. It was shown, too, that they are as a rule insufficiently reliable because of the inadequate sampling of the course, because the questions often do not elicit the kinds of responses that the teacher desired, and because of the subjectivity of the scoring. Certainly essay answers seldom result in a sufficiently wide distribution of the class to indicate their relative achievements. As every teacher knows, marks on the answers to a single question tend to cluster around zero, the passing mark, and 100; the difference of ten points in the range between 20 and 30, if a numerical scale is used,



is far less significant than the same difference above 70 or 85.

**New-Type Tests.**—In consequence of the criticisms, supported by an increasing amount of convincing evidence, new-type tests were proposed and introduced into use. The most common ones are the true-false, the selective response, the completion, and the matching. The arguments for and against them have been so frequently presented in magazine articles and in books on measurement that they need not be repeated here. Weidemann after studying approximately 100,000 test items concludes that objective tests are less useful in high school and college than in the elementary school, that they are for the primary purpose of measuring varying degrees of mastery of facts and that they have a secondary function of measuring certain aspects of simple and general reasoning abilities.<sup>1</sup>

Supervision should see to it that every teacher understands the merits, the defects, and the possibilities of new-type tests. They have very definite superiority over essay examinations in certain respects, especially in measuring the acquisition and ability to recall or to recognize facts. They can more easily than essay examinations be made reliable. But it is only by the exercise of unusual ingenuity that they can be made so as to measure reflective thought, organization, originality, knowledge and powers not definitely called for, the ability to plan and to justify, and application.<sup>2</sup>

As previously emphasized, every examination should be made to test the attainment of the important objectives of an educational experience, but it is entirely proper also to measure the acquisition and retention of such knowledge as is necessary for the attainment of these objectives. What is not always perceived is that there are various kinds of knowledge, each one satisfactory in certain situations and quite inadequate in others.<sup>3</sup>

There is knowledge which enables one to recall when asked what the genitive plural of a word is. This kind of knowledge is necessary when one is required to translate. It easily merges

<sup>1</sup> C. C. Weidemann, "Written Examination Procedures," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 16:78-83, October, 1933.

<sup>2</sup> For effective suggestions see Grant Rahn, "Improving Instruction through the Examination," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, 9:114-117, October, 1934.

<sup>3</sup> See page 504.



into a more complex kind of knowledge of the functions of something, the uses to which it can be put, most commonly in combination with other knowledge, such as when to use it. Not infrequently a teacher finds that a pupil who can perform accurately the simpler fundamental operations in mathematics does not know when to multiply or divide. That there are different kinds of knowledge, each one useful for certain purposes, is emphasized here because the fact is not infrequently lost sight of in the preparation of examinations. Supervision should help teachers to clarify their minds as to which sort is satisfactory for pupil effectiveness and then to prepare examinations that measure the possession of the desired kind. New-type tests often are used to test pupils in identification or simple recall when a much more complex kind of knowledge is necessary for use.

New-type tests have a real contribution to make to the measuring program, but the plain fact is that they are very easy to make badly or to use for purposes that they cannot be expected to achieve. Supervision, then, has a responsibility to lead teachers to learn when each of the new types is appropriate as a measuring instrument and then to construct tests that reasonably well conform to the standards that have been set up. Nearly every book on measurement gives directions which must be observed in constructing each of the new types.

**Essay Tests.**—The essay type of examination should not be abandoned because of the criticisms directed against it. Instead, it should be improved and used in combination with new-type tests to secure a more adequate estimate of pupils' acquisition, retention, and ability to use what they are expected to learn. It has been estimated that improved essay and new-type examinations measure to the extent of 60 per cent the same things. It is a difficult task to get teachers to make good essay examinations so as to insure that they possess the desired characteristics. First they have to know what those characteristics are and to be convinced of their desirability, if not of their necessity; second, they have to realize the inadequacy of the commonly used examination; and, third, they need to learn both how to make good questions and how to read discriminatingly the answers. This is a responsibility and an opportunity of supervision.



According to Wrightstone,<sup>1</sup> "Some general agreement exists among test technicians that certain objectives of instruction have not been measured validly by existing new-type tests. While the new-type tests are more reliable for measuring information, some experts believe that essay examinations are best adapted for the measurement of critical capacity and reasoning ability, and, in some instances, for the expression of attitudes. In the social studies, if objective tests are not available, essay questions may defensibly be used to measure such objectives as (a) an attitude toward some social, political, or economic phenomena; (b) organizing social-studies facts; (c) interpreting, evaluating, or discussing social-studies data; (d) applying social-studies principles to described events or situations."

To make good essay examination questions requires time, skill, and care. The following steps are suggested for improving the questions and the reading of the papers:

1. Make a list of the objectives the attainment of which it is desired to measure. These may include knowledge, attitudes, skills, or what not.

2. Frame a separate question to measure attainment of each of the objectives that will be included in the examination. The larger the number of questions, the more reliable the test is likely to be. As far as possible formulate each question so as to indicate that "a definite, restricted type of answer is required." Wrightstone gives as a substitution for "Explain the reasons for the General Motors strike" this improvement, "Explain the reasons for the General Motors strike to show (a) the labor grievances of the employees; (b) the practices of the employer; (c) related national, social, and economic factors; (d) the rival labor unions; and (e) the method of striking." And Stalnaker reports that by using such a question as "Compare Corneille and Racine as to (a) modernity, (b) the use of action, and (c) observance of the unities" instead of "Compare the writings of Corneille and Racine" the reliability of essay examinations was increased in two years from .42 to .92.

Before administering an essay examination a teacher should be sure that the directions are entirely clear to the pupils. The

<sup>1</sup> On essay examinations, see in the bibliography at the end of this chapter items under Osborn, Sims, Stalnaker, Weidemann and Wilkinson, and Wrightstone.



meaning of such terms as "Criticize," "Discuss," "Evaluate," and "Interpret" the pupils should know and, preferably, they should have been given some directed preparatory exercises in doing what they are expected to do.

3. Write out perfect answers for all questions and decide what credit will be given for omissions. Osborn and Wrightstone give illustrations of key answers, the latter recommending an eleven-point scale and giving several samples.

4. Read several papers to test the correction key and make such changes as seem necessary.

5. Read with the key all the answers to each question before proceeding to the next. More accuracy in marking will be secured if the answers to each question are first ranked and then the papers in each rank are given a mark.

6. If it is desired to mark such matters as organization, originality, neatness, and spelling, consider them separately.

7. If knowledge of the necessary technique is possessed, transmute the raw scores into standard scores by dividing the difference between the median and a pupil's score by the sigma or by the P.E. of the entire distribution. This has been found to reduce the variability of readers by one-half.

**Improving Examinations.**—Following are some questions that may profitably be discussed by teachers under the direction of a supervisor looking toward the improvement of examinations, especially of the essay type.

1. Exactly what should be expected from the examination?

2. What are the objectives that have been sought in the course?

Two problems are usually involved in formulating the objectives of a particular course. One is to get a list of objectives which is reasonably complete, that is, which includes all of the important objectives to be reached. The other is to state the objectives in such clear and definite terms that they can serve as guides in the making of the examination questions. Many statements of objectives are so vague and nebulous that, although they may sound well, they prove to be glittering generalities which are of little use in making examinations.

In making a list of objectives for a course, one procedure commonly followed is to begin with the general function or purpose of the subject and to analyze this into its several aspects or sub-functions. Another method is to begin with the content of the course



and with reference to each topic ask the question: What is the purpose of this topic? What do I expect students to get from this topic? In most cases it is necessary to use a combination of both procedures in order to get a relatively complete list of important objectives and in order to clarify the meaning of each objective.

This combination of methods can be illustrated by the procedures followed by the department of zoology in a certain university in formulating the objectives for the elementary course. This department recognized two major functions or purposes of the elementary course. One of these was to teach the student a fund of important zoological information; the other was to teach the student to use scientific method in zoology. Beginning with these accepted major functions, the instructors in the department first analyzed them into several sub-functions, i.e., they broke up the general objectives into the several more definite objectives which these general objectives included. Upon analysis, the general informational objective was split up into the following: the recall of important specific facts; the memory of general technical terms found in zoological publications. The use of scientific method, the instructors decided, meant the ability to formulate reasonable generalizations from experimental data, the ability to plan satisfactory experiments to test promising hypotheses in zoology, and the ability to apply significant zoological principles to situations new to the students. By means of an analysis of the two general objectives, the department was thus able to formulate these six more definite objectives.<sup>1</sup>

### 3. The attainment of which objectives should be measured?

The importance of covering all of the significant objectives in an examination program can best be shown by illustration. In chemistry the objectives which instructors are commonly trying to reach include teaching students to acquire a fund of important facts and principles; to understand the technical terms commonly appearing in chemical publications; to be able to apply important chemical principles to appropriate situations; to express chemical reactions by means of equations involving chemical symbols and formulae; to be skillful in certain laboratory techniques. Any adequate examination program for chemistry will provide means for discovering how far each of these objectives is being attained. Tests need to be included which will indicate how well students are acquiring these important facts and principles; how well they

<sup>1</sup> H. E. Hawkes, E. F. Lindquist, and C. R. Mann, *Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations*, pp. 8-9. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1936. In this volume the theory of test construction is treated on pages 17-106, and after a discussion of the construction there is consideration in subsequent chapters of examinations in the several subjects.



understand the technical terms commonly appearing in chemical publications; how well able they are to apply important chemical principles to appropriate situations; how satisfactorily they can express chemical reactions by the use of equations; how skillful they are in essential laboratory techniques. Obviously, evidence of all of these attainments cannot be had from a single examination, but an inclusive examination program should cover all of the important objectives. Some of these attainments can be determined by means of paper and pencil tests with which everyone is more or less familiar. Others would need to be tested by different devices. In order to discover how skillful the students have become in the essential laboratory techniques, it is probably necessary to set the students at work on certain laboratory problems and to evaluate their skill by means of observation and by checking the outcome of the laboratory exercises.<sup>1</sup>

4. What relative emphasis in the examination does each selected objective deserve?

5. What type of test will best measure the attainment of each objective selected for measurement?

6. What selection of test items will most fairly cover what has been studied?

7. What means can be used to insure that the pupils learn maximally during the preparation for the examination and while taking it?

8. How can questions be phrased so as to insure the same understanding by the pupils?

9. What specific preparation of pupils for an examination is necessary so that they will understand precisely what they are to do and thus be maximally enabled to manifest their knowledge, skills, and attitudes? Weidemann has listed 194 commands and queries that are used in examinations, such as *Describe*, *Discuss*, *Explain*, *Consider*, *Analyze*, *Criticize*, *Outline*, and *Sketch*. It is unreasonable to expect each of these directions to mean the same thing to all pupils or to get the best responses from them unless the ones used are explained and unless some directed practice in making desired responses is given.

10. What announcements should be made as to what in the form of pupils' responses will be considered in marking the papers?

11. What bonus, if any, should be given for the quality of

<sup>1</sup> Hawkes, Lindquist, and Mann, *op. cit.*, pp. 5-6.



responses? Just what in each examination is considered superior quality? How can pupils best be informed of the meaning of "quality"?

12. What advantages accrue from teachers' writing out completely ideal responses to each question as they prepare it for a written examination?

13. Should each examination be short enough to be completed by all pupils or so long that none can finish in the allotted time? Should the time be held constant for all pupils?

14. Should questions be weighted? If so, what should determine the assigned weights?

15. How can a wide distribution of the pupils on the basis of their responses be insured?

16. What advantages are there in reading all the answers to one question successively, sorting the papers into five or six piles according to merit and then rereading those in each pile for more accurate estimates of values?

17. Is the fairness of marking sufficiently increased by having pupils sign their papers with a number or pseudonym instead of with their own names to warrant the innovation? It has been argued that in assigning marks teachers are unduly influenced by a "halo effect," that is, by a set attitude toward the individual and his previous work.

18. How will an examination affect the subsequent study and learning by pupils? How is it desired that it should?

19. How will and should the examination affect the subsequent relations between pupils and the teacher? How can possible harmful effects be prevented?

20. What are the advantages of preparing as the work of a course progresses questions which are deposited in a reservoir from which they can be drawn when each final examination is made? On this point Tyler writes,

The lists of facts, principles, terms, experiments, and the like are also necessary parts of the basic materials. Some time is required to collect these basic lists, but when they have been assembled they serve as a reservoir of materials for making new examinations, . . . very helpful means of checking the contents of the course, . . . useful as guides in preparing lectures, planning laboratory work, and outlining assignments.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Hawkes, Lindquist, and Mann, *op. cit.*, p. 11.



21. What are the advantages and disadvantages of using over again in subsequent examinations some of the questions that have proved valid and reliable?

### TYPES OF TESTS

There are five types of tests that can be used in schools: the prognostic, the pretest, the teaching, the diagnostic, and the achievement. Each type will now be discussed briefly with indications of its use in supervision.

**I. The Prognostic Test.**—Numerous efforts have been made to construct tests that will indicate the probable success of a pupil in a specified subject or vocation. If the results were entirely reliable, pupils could by them be given wise guidance, classified into homogeneous groups, and judged as to the extent to which they work up to their abilities. But unfortunately all prophecies based on prognosis tests have a large degree of error. Because of certain uncontrollable variables it is estimated that the highest coefficient of correlation that can be expected between prognosis test results and actual achievement of success is  $+ .75$ . Some actually are higher than this, but most of them are lower, many of them much lower. The correlation between scores of intelligence, which must be an important factor in most learning, and measures of success in academic subjects runs approximately between  $+ .15$  and  $+ .65$ ; in non-academic subjects, considerably lower.<sup>1</sup>

Prognosis tests have been devised not only for nearly all of the subjects taught in secondary schools, but also for success in college study and in a number of the more popular vocations. Although the indexes of reliability are lower than can be desired, such tests can profitably be used to supplement the teachers' judgments based on cumulated personnel data. Teachers should be acquainted with prognosis tests, but their use is primarily the responsibility of the principal or supervisor.<sup>2</sup>

**II. The Pretest.**—There is in every school, especially in subjects continued from previous semesters, a considerable amount of time spent on what some, if not all, of the pupils already know. One supervisor by the use of an extended test

<sup>1</sup> For explanation of the meaning of coefficients of correlation, see pages 519–520.

<sup>2</sup> For a summary of what is known about prognosis tests, see J. M. Lee, *op. cit.*, pp. 70–140, which contains an extensive bibliography.



at the beginning of a semester found that the pupils knew 70 per cent of the language skills that the course of study had set down to be taught. A pretest if sufficiently comprehensive will show large variations in what individual pupils know and thus indicate the necessity of a considerable amount of instruction for individuals or for small groups of pupils with homogeneous attainments. Compelling pupils to spend time on what they already know is an excellent means of dulling their interest.

The pretest can also be effectively used to motivate work. When planned for the purpose, it will reveal ignorance by pupils of what they can be shown it is to their advantage to know and thus it will set up in them either a true motivation or a cogent stimulus. Some of the pupils will want to learn what they are shown that they do not know because of a realization of the need for the satisfaction of immediate or of assured future needs. Others will study to learn because of realized ignorance and a desire to learn or to do for its own sake; the stimulus is very similar to that caused by the challenge of a puzzle.

**III. The Teaching Test.**—A properly prepared test, either before formal study of a topic or problem or during its procedure, can be an effective means of teaching. Besides revealing what is not known and stimulating or motivating activity and learning, it may set tasks the doing of which will result in knowledge and in skills.

An illustration of this type is the Briggs Dictionary Test.<sup>1</sup> Assuming that a knowledge of how to use a dictionary is of considerable importance and that few secondary school pupils have learned either from formal instruction or incidentally how to use it with any degree of completeness, the author first made a list of all the kinds of information that can be acquired from such a book. Then he prepared six groups of tests totaling 43 items that demand knowledge of how to find each kind of information in the dictionary. The challenges, mostly in the form of new-type tests, are interesting to pupils, not unduly difficult, and economical in administration as they require a minimum of writing for the answers and can be easily scored. The test requires about two hours for seventh-grade pupils and about eighty minutes for those in the twelfth grade. When completed it will have indicated practically all of the uses to which a dictionary

<sup>1</sup> *Teachers College Record*, 24:355-365, September, 1923.



can be put. Inspection of the responses will show precisely what further instruction each pupil needs.

Another type of teaching test is the open-book examination toward the end of a unit of study. A long series of questions can be prepared so as to emphasize the major purposes of the study, to demand a thorough review, and to reveal the organization that gives the principles and facts significance. The best type of this kind of teaching test will require a considerable amount of application of the principles and facts for the satisfaction of needs. For example, the test will present one or more problems that demand the use of Gresham's Law for solution rather than merely requiring a statement of what that law is. The open-book test should result not only in a considerable amount of drill in review of what has already been taught, but also be diagnostic of the needs of each pupil for further learning.

**IV. The Diagnostic Test.**—Seldom does teaching result in complete learning by all pupils at the same rate. Although everyone affirms that instruction should continuously be concerned with individual progress, the succession of large classes in our secondary schools and the simpler demands on the teacher of mass teaching tend against it. Diagnostic tests help to locate individual difficulties and to bring into a teacher's consciousness the obligation to afford such remedial help as each boy and girl needs. When a mechanic looks over a car that will not run, he first attempts to locate the trouble and to find the cause of it. But his job is not done until he has cleaned the ignition points, adjusted the carburetor, or replaced the cracked spark plug. So in the school the teacher tries to find the weakness of a pupil, to determine the cause of it, and to give such remedial help as will enable him to progress normally.

Achievement tests will measure attainments or progress, but they do not economically locate specific deficiencies in learning or indicate their causes. By studying the detailed answers to achievement tests of most kinds a teacher can often find just wherein a pupil has failed, but this is an uneconomical procedure. Much more effective and economical is a test designed to be diagnostic,—that is, to reveal the specific deficiencies of each pupil so that the causes may be studied and remedial help afforded. Remedial tests are most useful in deter-



mining weaknesses in the tools of learning or of expression; they seldom can be of much help in identifying failures to achieve the larger objectives of a course.

Diagnostic tests may be confined to pupils who are known to be having difficulties in their work, but, better still, they should be applied to all pupils, for not infrequently they reveal troubles unsuspected by the teacher. In continuous subjects, like English composition, or in subjects like algebra that make extensive use of skills acquired earlier in the elementary grades, diagnostic tests may well be given at the very beginning in order that the teacher may learn what the pupils need in the way of remedial teaching in order that they may not be handicapped in the new work. In all subjects they can with profit be given periodically to reveal the specific deficiencies of learning that must be repaired.

There are on the market a number of diagnostic tests<sup>1</sup> prepared by experts, but they are inadequate to satisfy all the needs of any school. Therefore teachers should learn to make diagnosis tests as well as to select them. First it is necessary to decide exactly on the specific knowledge or skill the possession of which by pupils is to be measured. These need to be detailed. The teacher will want to know in algebra, for example, to what extent pupils are able to perform the four fundamental operations with numerical or literal expressions, or to collect terms, or to remove parentheses, or to find the square root. Each operation should be tested several times, preferably on higher levels of difficulty, for carelessness in responding to a single challenge may conceal possessed ability. The analysis of detailed reading difficulties as presented by McCallister<sup>2</sup> will prove suggestive of what needs to be done. Much ingenuity can be displayed by teachers in selecting for use the most economical and effective new-type tests.<sup>3</sup>

*An illustration.*—As an illustration of one way of preparing a diagnostic test an exposition will be given of the method used

<sup>1</sup> See the list on pp. 45–73 of Arthur E. Traxler's *The Use of Test Results in Diagnosis and Instruction in the Tool Subjects*, Educational Records Bureau, 1936; 74 pages.

<sup>2</sup> James M. McCallister, "Reading Difficulties in Studying Content Subjects," *Elementary School Journal*, 31:191–201, November, 1930.

<sup>3</sup> See "Evaluation of Exercises Designed to Diagnose Pupil Difficulty," pages 170–178 in Charles W. Knudsen's *Evaluation and Improvement of Teaching*. Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1932.



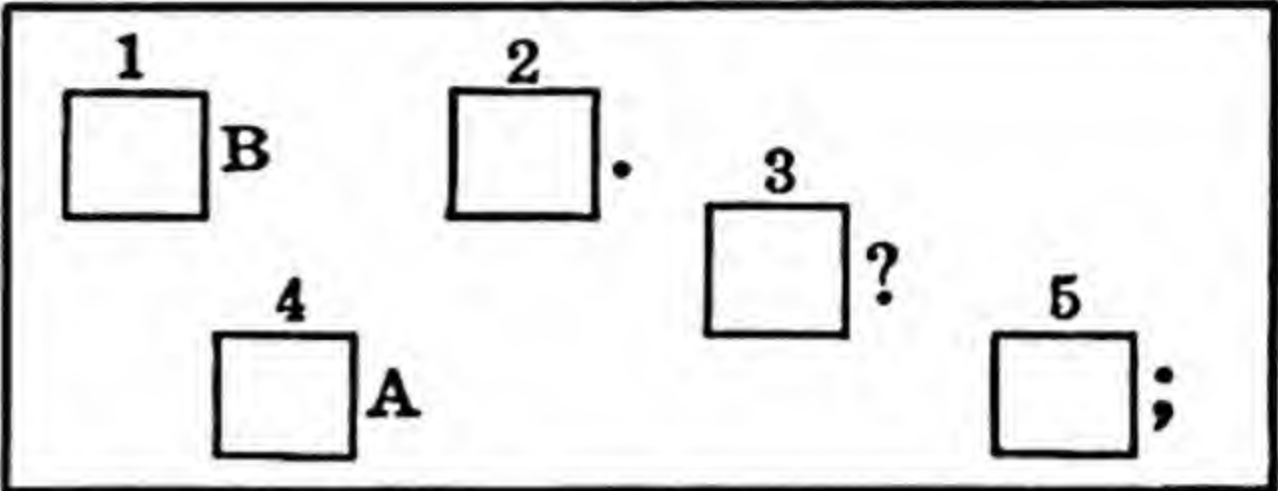
with the Briggs English Form Test.<sup>1</sup> First, the author selected for testing the seven mechanical forms that the National Council of Teachers of English had decided are of fundamental importance: beginning every sentence with a capital letter, ending a declarative sentence with a period and an interrogative sentence with a question mark, using a capital letter for proper nouns, avoiding the comma blunder, using the apostrophe of possession, and using a comma before *but* joining two clauses. Next he had to decide how to test the ability to use those forms correctly. Teachers could examine the free written work of pupils and tabulate the errors, but that would be highly expensive of time and labor, for many pages of writing might not require a single use of several of these forms. Sentences containing all of them might be prepared and dictated. This would insure that the pupils had the necessary challenges, but it also requires much time for the dictation and also for the tabulation of the errors. Finally by an experiment it was found that proofreading gives so nearly the same results as dictation that it could safely be used.

Five groups of four sentences that require the use of each form on a level of increasing difficulty were prepared. For example, apostrophes were needed in *boy's*, *children's*, *sailors'*, *Charles's*, and *Higgins and Brown's*, it being assumed that the easiest use is in the first word and the most difficult in the last. For economy two of the challenges were in several instances combined into one sentence, the entire test consisting of twenty sentences with the forms arranged in cycles,—that is, the first four sentences contain the seven easiest challenges, the second four the next easiest, and so on to the last which contains the hardest. The first sentence of the first cycle is "*birds sing*" This requires that a capital be written at the beginning and a period at the end. The third sentence of the last cycle is "In all the history of the village there are a few stories of genuine pathos one of these concerns a young kentucky boy left an orphan by the sudden and accidental death of both parents they were on a visit to their parents at the time of the tragedy of which we have heard." This requires stops after *pathos* and *parents* and an initial capital letter in *Kentucky*.

<sup>1</sup> Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. This test has two forms, A and B.



For ease of scoring the test, square apertures are cut out of a stiff Manila sheet so that the windows reveal each point at which a correction should be made, and both the number of the challenge and the correct form are written by the opening. A mark with a colored pencil is then made on the test through each aperture that does not show the proper correction. A part of the correction stencil is here reproduced: (It was found by examining the entire sheets of the test that the pupils make "corrections" that are erroneous, but as the teachers using the test are concerned only with the seven fundamental forms, the other marks may for the time be ignored.)



To locate the difficulties of each pupil, the results of the test are scored as shown in the accompanying illustration. If one

RECORD OF ERRORS MADE BY 10 PUPILS ON THE ENGLISH FORM TEST

Pupils	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35
A		X				X							X							X						X	X						X	X	
B			X			X			X				X			X				X			X				X			X			X	X	
C													X					X		X						X	X	X				X	X	X	
D						X														X						X	X						X	X	
E						X							X													X		X					X	X	
F						X							X							X						X							X	X	
G																										X							X		
H						X							X					X		X						X	X						X	X	
I						X							X							X							X							X	
J						X							X					X		X						X	X						X	X	

The heavier vertical lines indicate the end of each cycle

person reads the numbers of the challenges on which mistakes are made and another makes the record on the score sheet, the work can be done very rapidly. Obviously every seventh column shows the responses to the challenge to correct the same kind of error—for examples, Columns 1, 8, 15, 22, and 29 contain the record on initial capital letters; and Columns 5, 12, 19, 26, and 33 the record on the comma blunder.

If in a strip of tough paper as wide as the test five apertures seven columns of the graph paper apart are cut, one can easily see the record of one pupil at a time on the challenges to correct the same kind of error. In the illustrative record, which indicates fewer errors than will be made by many classes, it can be seen that Pupil A failed to insert the first initial capital (Column 1),



but he succeeded in all the other four challenges (Columns 8, 15, 22, 29); the omission in the first challenge may therefore safely be ascribed to carelessness. Pupil B failed to place a terminal period in all five places where it is required (Columns 2, 9, 16, 23, 30); therefore he certainly needs instruction and drill. Pupil C succeeded in the easier challenges to use the capital with a proper noun (Columns 4 and 11), but he failed on the more difficult ones (Columns 18, 25, 32), indicating where he needs help.

Looking up the columns one can see that all the pupils but G are weak in the use of the apostrophe of possession (Columns 6, 13, 20, 27, 34) and that on the more difficult challenges to correct run-on sentences (Columns 26 and 33) the majority of the pupils failed. These errors should be charged to the course of study or to the teaching.

The English Form Test has been explained at length not because of its importance, but because it illustrates techniques that teachers may profitably and economically use in making their own diagnostic tests either in English or in other subjects. Cycles can easily be made up of the several operations in algebra or trigonometry; of names, dates, and periods in history; of accuracy in reading and analyzing problems in science; or of any of the other tools of learning.

*Finding causes of deficiencies.* Diagnostic tests are important only in locating the weaknesses of each individual pupil. When these are discovered every effort should be exerted to determine the cause or causes first of all, and, so far as possible, to remove them. Teachers usually will do well to seek pupils' own explanations of their failures. Of course the native intelligence of a pupil cannot be improved, but the work can be adjusted to his ability or he can be transferred to another section, course, or curriculum. It will not be sufficient to say that a pupil is lazy or inattentive or frequently absent. A school sincerely accepting responsibility for the best education of each individual will seek to find the causes lying back of laziness, inattention, or absence. They may result from an inability to read sufficiently well to do the required work satisfactorily; they may reside in physical illness or defects, as of eyes, hearing, or digestion; they may spring from emotional maladjustment. Flemming gives a list of fifteen important factors that may cause



failure,<sup>1</sup> which may profitably be considered. A potent cause probably will be found to be the failure of pupils to understand the purposes of the work they are required to do.

*Remedial teaching.* The causes of failure having been discovered and so far as possible removed, there should of necessity follow remedial teaching and drill, which should be continued until each pupil achieves the standard that has been set. Sometimes it may be wise, when a pupil is shown to be weak in many of the fundamentals, to transfer him to a class in which the necessary instruction is being given to the entire group. But when the deficiencies are relatively few, and especially when they can reasonably be considered the result of poor teaching, remedial work should be provided for individuals or for small groups that have the same needs. Properly used, diagnostic tests are a powerful aid to the supervisor in promoting the desired individualization of instruction.

**V. Achievement Tests.**—The final type of tests to be discussed is the one most commonly used in secondary schools. Some kind of achievement test is evidenced daily in almost all classes as the teachers ask oral questions and judge their replies. But to measure achievement with greater accuracy there is need of more formal tests that are comprehensive, valid, and reliable. Numerous tests that have these characteristics in a high degree have been published.<sup>2</sup> Many of these tests have norms, which are the average scores made by a large number of pupils from widely scattered representative schools. Norms should not be considered ideal standards to be achieved. In some matters nothing less than perfection can be satisfactory; in others every pupil should be required to achieve or even to surpass the standard. It must not be forgotten that averages conceal the failure of many with low scores. Supervision is concerned with the successful achievement of every individual, not merely with averages.

<sup>1</sup> See Cecile W. Flemming, *Pupil Adjustment in the Modern School*, p. 33, Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications. See also Lee, *op. cit.*, pp. 272 ff. Effective results from remedial teaching after diagnostic tests are reported in such studies as J. Paul Leonard, *The Use of Practice Exercises in the Teaching of Capitalization and Punctuation*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930; and Harry J. Baker, *Educational Disability and Case Studies in Remedial Teaching*, Public School Publishing Co., 1929.

<sup>2</sup> See the "List of Recommended Tests Suitable for Use in Secondary Schools," in J. M. Lee, *op. cit.*, pp. 457–493. The tests published by the Coöperative Test Service, 500 West 116th Street, New York, are especially recommended.



*Scaled tests.* Teachers may be informed of the meaning of standard tests that are scaled, though they are not used as frequently as a few years ago. A scale usually furnishes samples of knowledge or a skill that proceed from zero by steps of known length upward. There are, for example, composition scales that begin with a piece of writing that is recognized as someone's attempt at expression, but has "just not any" merit, and then give other samples each approximately "one step" better than the preceding. By comparing a pupil's composition with the scale a teacher is able to give a more reliable estimate of its value than if he made a wholly subjective judgment. Scales are useful chiefly when it is desired to estimate the percentage of improvement, which is not possible with other measures that do not indicate the zero point of achievement. Supervision is not likely to need to use scales often in its effort to improve instruction.

*Preparing an achievement test.* Though the number of published achievement tests prepared by experts is large, to satisfy all their needs teachers should be helped to make their own that have as far as possible the desired characteristics of being comprehensive, valid, reliable, and easy to administer. An extensive use of new-type tests will be necessary, though as previously stated the old-type tests can be considerably improved and should not be wholly abandoned. To prepare their own achievement tests teachers must first decide precisely what they want to measure and then use the instrument that is with maximum accuracy likely to give the desired information. By way of illustration the procedure used in devising an achievement test for a conventional course in first-term Latin will be outlined.<sup>1</sup>

First was listed all that was taught in the course: pronunciation (separated into the sounds of vowels and consonants, syllabification, and accent), the rules of gender, the vocabulary, the forms of nouns, pronouns, and verbs, and rules for the several constructions. Then a selection was made if necessary—as it was with vocabulary and the morphology, since all could not be tested—to get the elements that seemed not only representative but also the most important. And finally suitable new-type tests were devised. A sample of each test will be given.

<sup>1</sup> From Thomas H. Briggs, "An Examination in First-Term Latin," *Classical Weekly*, 16:148-151, March 19, 1923.



For syllabification and accent a list of words representing all the rules studied was prepared and the pupils were required to draw a slanting line after each syllable and to indicate the accent, thus:

*d é/a, p u b l i c e, c o n f i r m / o.*

A test of pronunciation presented more difficulty. It was possible, of course, to have each pupil read aloud a list of words requiring application of all the rules of pronunciation, but that would have taken much time, and also it would have involved a nicety of ear on the part of the tester that could not be consistently reliable. Therefore eight words representing all of the rules for pronunciation were selected and each one was followed by four other actual or invented words that rhymed with the correct or probable incorrect pronunciations. Thus:

se: see tzay zee say

*apud*: flood feud food rude

*urbs*:    usurps    suburbs    chirps    verbs

*portare:*   poor tar-y   pour tar-y   pour tarry   poor tar

The pupils were required to underline the best rhyme, as indicated in the illustration.

A knowledge of the rules of gender was tested by a list of ten words involving all the rules studied:

*fuga, cibus, liber, quid, eas, nauta, donum, multitudo, mare, potestas*

The pupils were required to indicate the gender of each word by writing after it M, F, or N.

Vocabulary was tested by a list of 25 representative words after each of which the pupils were required to write an English equivalent.

For identification of the forms of nouns and pronouns representative words (15 of each) illustrating all the case endings studied were printed along the left-hand margin and the pupils were required to indicate by an x the case and number of each. Thus:

[illegible]



For the identification of verb forms a similar selection of 33 words was presented on a sheet that required indication of the correct conjugational form under: active, passive, singular, plural, present, imperfect, future, perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect, with a separate column in which the person (first, second, or third) could be indicated.

All of the grammatical rules were tested as in the following illustrations:

- I. Fill in each blank with one word only so that the completed sentence is correct; where necessary cross out WITH or WITHOUT.
  - a. The subject of a finite verb is in the———case.
  - b. Manner is expressed by———case, WITH—WITHOUT a preposition.
- II. After each of the following sentences write what the under-scored phrase expresses (e.g., accompaniment, agent, cause, manner, means, place where or to or from which, separation, or time); and draw a line through YES or NO leaving the word that tells if a preposition must be used.
  - a. Soldiers fight *with spears*. YES NO
  - b. The ship was wrecked *on a rocky shore*. YES NO

By the exercise of a little ingenuity teachers can make for any subject similar tests of achievement which cover much more ground in the same length of time than would be possible with other types of examination and which because of their objectivity have a greater degree of reliability. When such test cannot be made adequately to measure important objectives of a course, the essay examination should be used. In devising new-type tests teachers can get other suggestions from the many that have been published.

### ATTITUDES TOWARD TESTING

**The Attitude of Modern Educational Theory.**—The attitude of modern educational theorists toward examinations is that they should be vastly improved so as to contribute more effectively to approved ultimate objectives or else be used with diminished frequency and emphasis. The position of the most radical theorists that they should be abandoned entirely will not find anything like general approval. A reasonable alternative is to make better tests and to use them with more assured beneficent results. There is no sense in using examinations that have in



an inadequate degree the necessary characteristics as previously presented or in failing to use what they reveal to influence better teaching.

**The Attitude of Teachers.**—The attitude of teachers toward examinations has unfortunately too often been one of complacent confidence. Not having been led to realize the imperfections of the testing instruments ordinarily used, they have reposed in them a wholly unjustifiable faith and have not been stirred to find or to make others that measure with validity what they have purported to teach. The tests made by teachers to a large extent reveal their concept of values in a unit of study. Until supervision has improved that, tests will continue to pervert education.

**The Attitude of Pupils.**—The attitude of pupils toward tests and examinations has far too frequently been one of fear, chiefly because so much in the way of promotion has depended on them. As a result of apprehension many pupils have suffered nervous and, it is asserted, physical disorders. The remedy is not a discarding of formal examinations, but an improvement in them and a manifested use of the results to improve learning and its effective application. An increased frequency of the proper kinds of examinations with uses of the results which the pupils can appreciate as of material help to them will largely remove the common disturbing fears.

That tests generally stimulate pupils to harder work every teacher knows. Stimulus is not so good educationally as motivation, but it is a means that cannot be neglected when sounder effective ones cannot be provided. When pupils are informed of their scores in a series of tests, they nearly always make more marked improvement. Richardson reported that "pupils of the intermediate grades . . . eliminate 53 per cent . . . of their misspellings from the central half of Ayres' list in one-fifth of a year's time simply because they know exactly where they stand and that they have a chance to prove the value of their efforts."<sup>1</sup> So far as it is effective pupils should be encouraged to compete with their previous records in an effort toward mastery, rather than to compete against their fellows. But the spirit of competition against others is too deep-seated

<sup>1</sup> J. W. Richardson, "Another Educational Campaign," *Journal of Educational Research*, 6:97-101, September, 1922.



in human nature to be removed, and it is too potent to be neglected.

### A TESTING PROGRAM

Wise supervision will recognize that, although testing is merely helpful to the improvement of teaching, its importance and possible effectiveness demand careful planning for a comprehensive and extensive program. The best results from testing cannot be effected by periodic attention for short intervals of time. Fortunate is the supervisor who finds even a few of the teachers already well prepared by college or university courses to select, make, and use tests properly. Often by stimulus and encouragement he can get one or more teachers to become effective specialists, who can be subsequently used to assist the whole faculty. In large schools a test specialist, especially if also trained in psychology, is a wise investment.

The supervisory program should have the purposes which will now be stated and briefly discussed. The general principles of testing can be developed in the faculty meetings or in a special study club, but much subsequent individual help will be needed by the teachers from the supervisor. With the aid of carefully selected books on measurement, committees of teachers can present to the entire faculty adequate summaries of the more important topics without an undue demand of time from anyone. The more the teachers themselves do in this exposition, the more interested they are likely to be. From a discussion of the principles will emerge a realization of problems of local importance. Teachers can also be motivated by realizing the purposes of measurement and the inadequacies of common practices in the school.

#### **Supervisory Purposes of a Testing Program.—**

1. *To get teachers to appreciate the purposes of testing.* These purposes have already been discussed at length in this chapter. In the group meetings the teachers after understanding all of them should select for special attention those that seem to them most important for promoting the objectives of the school and of the individual courses of study. Emphasis should be laid on the fact that tests reveal the successes and the failures of teaching as well as the achievements of the pupils. Attention should also be given to the measurement of what has often been



considered immeasurable—the attitudes, the interests, and the emotional adjustments of the pupils.

2. *To secure the concern of teachers with the inadequacies of the commonly used tests.* Among the many means of achieving this purpose the following may be mentioned as especially effective:

(a) A study of the distribution of marks assigned by the several teachers and departments. If these are charted and either posted or distributed, preferably without the names of the teachers being attached, there is always an interested discussion that can readily be directed to the causes of differences that lie in the types of testing used.

(b) A rating by several teachers of the same set of examination papers will usually show such differences in the assigned marks that everyone will realize the lack of reliability in the current practice of using one teacher's rating as the final judgment of pupil achievement.

(c) If a group of teachers at first without and later with commonly accepted criteria criticize a test prepared by one of their number, there will result not only a better mutual understanding but also the probability of an effort to improve the validity of all subsequent tests. Attention will also be given to the ease of administration, the length, the comprehensiveness, the objectivity of scoring the answers, and the like.

(d) Weighting of the questions in a sample school test by a group of teachers will usually manifest such wide variation in judgment of values that the need of closer agreement is evident. Both the difficulty and the importance of each question should be considered.

(e) If the achievement of a group of pupils on two tests prepared by the teachers as of the same difficulty on the identical subject-matter is considered, the variations will emphasize the need of more consistency in reliability.

(f) The achievement of a class of pupils on a home-made and on a standard test covering the same materials will evidence differences in scores that evidently will need explanation.

(g) A discussion of the extent to which previously used tests influence the subsequent study of pupils is profitable. It is only human that pupils will prepare to answer such questions as have been asked before. Even teaching is strongly influenced by the published tests that teachers expect will be used.



(h) If a group of teachers themselves take a regular school examination prepared by one of their number, they will discover merits and weaknesses that can profitably be used not only to criticize commonly used tests but also to create a readiness for a program of improvement.

3. *To lead teachers to appreciate the opportunities, the limitations, and the dangers in testing.* The more important opportunities in testing have been discussed in this chapter. There are special functions possible to the several kinds of new-type tests and others that are better achieved by the conventional essay. The limitations of tests, both those well and poorly prepared, should also be considered so that teachers will realize the limitations as well as the possibilities in the measuring instruments used. No available tests can measure all of the outcomes of teaching or all of the results of learning. There may exist no tests that measure or are designed to measure what the school has in certain units attempted to teach. To use a good test for an improper purpose will inevitably have bad results. Standard tests should never be permitted to hamper pioneering. The norms presented for published tests are usually too high for pupils of low intelligence and too low to stimulate the gifted to their best effort. Good tests may be invalidated by improper administration. This list of dangers and limitations can be supplemented by any group of teachers who are studying the problems of testing. Each danger or limitation noted should be a challenge for the preparation of an effective program.

4. *To help teachers to learn how to select good tests.* A test can be called good only if it contributes to achievement of the purpose or purposes for which it is used. Therefore the first step is to decide the purposes of testing. The published tests usually include a statement of the purposes for which they are intended, but in some instances a test may be used as well for other than the stated purposes. All tests should be evaluated by the criteria that have been set up. Sometimes these criteria can be applied only after experience.

Frequently the question of the cost of tests is raised. "In one school system," reports Terhune,<sup>1</sup> "with an enrollment between 1800 and 1900 where such a program was carried out twenty-

<sup>1</sup> *The New Jersey Education Bulletin*, 1932, page 697.



seven pupils were given special promotions, four were sent back a grade, and thirty-eight adjustments were made within the grades to higher or lower divisions. At the end of the year all but one of the special promotions had made good. This one pupil had been out of school for an extended period due to illness and it was thought best upon his return for him to continue in his regular grade in which he had started at the beginning of the year. Deduct from the twenty-six who made good the four who were demoted and you have a net gain of twenty-two pupil years or approximately \$2200. Subtracting the cost of the tests this showed a net saving to the taxpayer of over \$2000. Furthermore, three teachers, who had not been doing satisfactory work and whose tests verified the assumptions of the supervisor, were not voted salary raises at the end of the year—an additional saving of \$300. The following year all three of these teachers were on their mettle and showed at the end of the year that they had made the progress expected of their class. . . . One of the greatest opportunities for both economical and effective supervision lies in a well-planned testing program to be continued through a period of years.”

5. *To help teachers learn to make effective tests.* Again the definite selection of purposes for which tests are to be used is of primary importance. Then teachers must learn to apply the criteria of good tests, either of the new or of the essay type, to insure that they measure reliably and economically what they are intended to measure.<sup>1</sup>

The supervisor will do well after the necessary techniques are discussed to ask teachers in small groups to make tests which they think satisfy the approved criteria and then to have these tests criticized by other teachers. This criticism can be begun in a meeting of the entire faculty. The exercise can profitably be continued in smaller groups of teachers interested in the same subject and the same classes of pupils. The supervisor will need further to examine personally the early efforts of individual teachers to make improved types of tests.

6. *To help teachers learn to report properly the results of tests.* There are technical requirements for properly reporting tests, not all of which need to be used for every test on all occasions.

<sup>1</sup> For excellent help see J. M. Lee, *A Guide to Measurement in Secondary Education*, pp. 323-409.



The more important ones should be known so that teachers may select and use those that are necessary or desirable.<sup>1</sup>

7. *To help teachers to learn to interpret properly test results.*<sup>2</sup> The results must, of course, be interpreted in terms of the purposes sought. It can never be sensible to give tests and then do nothing of importance with the results that they reveal, and results cannot properly be used until they are interpreted. After every test the supervisor will do well to emphasize the necessity of considering the achievement of each pupil separately and of interpreting it in terms of everything that is known of him and of his previous work.

**Supervisory Follow-up.**—Emphasis has repeatedly been laid in this chapter, either by direct statement or by implication, on the responsibility of the supervisor in planning and in using a program of improved measurement. He can have tests and examinations given, scored mechanically, and reported formally, or he can use them as a potent means of directing the interest of teachers to the most important techniques and objectives of education. His constant effort should be to subordinate tests as an end in themselves and to insure that teachers with intelligent understanding of their purposes shall use the results to promote their own professional growth in order that they may contribute most assuredly and effectively to the desired growth of the pupils entrusted to their care.

## EXERCISES

1. From the list of purposes presented in the first part of this chapter select those that you feel are most important to seek in promoting a program of supervision. Justify your choices and your omissions.

2. Work up in detail a plan for achieving one or more of the purposes in which you are most interested.

3. Prepare to convince a group of teachers of the necessity of making tests more valid, and make a list of the means that you would propose for this purpose.

4. Prepare a plan to convince teachers of the necessity of making tests more reliable, and make a list of the means that you would use for this purpose.

5. List the advantages and the disadvantages of both the essay-type and of each of the new-type forms of examinations.

<sup>1</sup> See J. M. Lee, *op. cit.*, pp. 410–435.

<sup>2</sup> See J. M. Lee, *op. cit.*, pp. 436–456.



6. Find three sources in which are stated a helpful set of suggestions for preparing good new-type tests. Compare the suggestions and make a set for your own use.

7. What in your opinion can best be measured by each kind of test? What least well?

8. How can the essay-type and the new-types be combined for the most satisfactory results in an examination of a definitely chosen class to achieve certain definitely stated purposes?

9. (a) On some chapter studied, preferably in a book on measuring, make a new-type test consisting of 10 true-false items, of 10 completion items, and of 10 multiple choice or selective response items. Note the extent to which this preparation causes an effective review. Does your experience indicate that it would be wise occasionally to have pupils prepare what they consider good examination questions on a unit that they have studied?

(b) In a group composed of others who are interested in testing criticize all the prepared items, applying the criteria mentioned for good tests.

(c) In preparation for the criticism each member of the group may take the test prepared by another member, using the book if desired, and indicate the reason why he thinks some items are poor. If you do this, what did you learn about tests from the exercise?

10. Make two examinations of equal length from the items proposed by the members of the group for a test on the selected chapter, one composed of the items approved by all, the other of items unfavorably criticized. Have the group take the examination and then evaluate the reliability of the two tests by finding the coefficient of correlation between the scores on the odd and on the even items.

11. Consider several examinations that have recently been given in a secondary school and criticize them. Prepare a list of points which you as a supervisor would make in helping the teachers to improve them.

12. Outline a plan for presenting to teachers an explanation and an argument for using pretests.

13. Prepare a list of practical suggestions for teachers whom you wish to use teaching tests.

14. Prepare a diagnostic test on some unit of study with which you are familiar and justify it.

15. (a) List the causes that you consider important in resulting in such deficiencies as diagnostic tests will reveal.

(b) Which ones are beyond the power of teachers to remove? What should be done with the pupils handicapped by such causes?

(c) Which causes can you expect teachers to accept respon-



sibility for removing? How can you as a principal help them in attempting to do so?

16. Make a list of the several means that you think can be used to make possible remedial teaching. For what conditions is each type of remedial teaching most promising for effectiveness?

17. What are the uses of examination results that you would attempt to have teachers make? How?

18. How should you as a supervisor help teachers to improve the attitudes of pupils toward examinations?

19. Outline a plan for getting a group of teachers to have what you consider proper attitudes toward examinations and tests of all kinds.

20. Make in outline a general plan for improving the examination practices in a selected secondary school and to insure that the results are used with a maximum of educational effectiveness.

### BIBLIOGRAPHY

*Achievement Testing in Public and Independent Secondary Schools*, Educational Records Bureau, May-June, 1933.

H. C. Almy and Herbert Sorenson, *The Sorenson Rating Scales for Teachers*, Public School Publishing Co. This is explained in "A Teacher-Rating Scale of Determined Reliability and Validity," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 16:179-186, March, 1930.

C. J. Anderson, A. S. Barr, and Maybell G. Bush, *Visiting the Teacher at Work*, pp. 14-35. D. Appleton and Co., 1925.

A. S. Barr, *An Introduction to the Scientific Study of Classroom Supervision*, pp. 110-112, 327-366. D. Appleton and Co., 1931.

Raymond Franzen and F. B. Knight, "Criteria to Employ in Choice of Tests," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 12:408-412, October, 1921.

W. S. Gray, "Rating Scales, Self-Analysis, and the Improvement of Teaching," *School Review*, 29:49-57, January, 1921.

H. A. Greene and A. N. Jorgensen, *The Use and Interpretation of Educational Tests*. Longmans, Green and Co., 1929.

H. E. Hawkes, *et al.*, editors, *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1936.

"Improving Social Studies Instruction," pp. 234-237, *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association*, Vol. XV, No. 5, November, 1937.

M. E. Irwin and P. T. Rankin, "The Coöperative Preparation of Improved Examinations," *School Review*, 39:112-122, February, 1931.

I. L. Kandel, "Examinations and Their Substitutes in the United States," *Bulletin 28*, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1936.



- LeRoy A. King, "The Present Status of Teacher Rating," *American School Board Journal*, 70:44-46, 154-157, February, 1925.
- A. R. Lang, *Modern Methods in Written Examinations*, pp. 47-62, 209-245. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930.
- J. M. Lee, *A Guide to Measurement in Secondary Schools*, pp. 353-407. D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936.
- D. W. Lefever, "Dangers and Values in Teacher-Made Tests," *Education*, 53:410-413, March, 1933.
- W. A. Miller, "Teacher Rating from the Principal's Point of View," *American School Board Journal*, 78:48, May, 1929.
- J. S. Orleans, *Measurement in Secondary Education*. Nelson and Sons, 1937.
- W. J. Osborn, "Testing Thinking," *Journal of Educational Research*, 27:401-411, February, 1934.
- Henry D. Rinsland, *Constructing Tests and Grading*. Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937.
- Harold L. Rugg, "Self-Improvement of Teachers through Self-Rating," *Elementary School Journal*, 20:670-684, May, 1920.
- V. M. Sims, "Improving the Measuring Qualities of an Essay Examination," *Journal of Educational Research*, 27:20-31, September, 1933.
- J. M. and R. C. Stalnaker, "Reliable Reading of Essay Tests," *School Review*, 42:599-605, October, 1934.
- P. M. Symonds, *Measurement in Secondary Education*, pp. 24-52, 278-309. The Macmillan Company, 1927.
- P. M. Symonds, "The Testing Program for the High School," *School Review*, 40:97-108, February, 1932.
- "Teacher Rating," Report of the Committee of One Hundred on Classroom Teachers' Problems, *Addresses and Proceedings*, 202-215, National Education Association, 1925.
- "Teacher Rating," *Review of Educational Research*, 1:99-107, April, 1931.
- Ernest W. Tiegs, A rating scale in *An Evaluation of Some Techniques of Teacher Selection*, pp. 53-64. Public School Publishing Co., 1928.
- Arthur E. Traxler, *The Use of Test Results in Diagnosis and Instruction in the Tool Subjects*. Educational Records Bureau, 1936.
- Ralph W. Tyler, *Constructing Achievement Tests*. Ohio State University, 1934.
- C. C. Weidemann and Richard Wilkinson, "Recent Developments in the Written Essay Examination," *Review of Educational Research*, 5:484-490, December, 1935.
- J. W. Wrightstone, "Are Essay Examinations Obsolete?" *Social Education*, 1:401-405, September, 1937.



## CHAPTER XVIII

---

### SUPERVISORY EXPERIMENTATION

---

In the first decade of this century the proposal that science should be introduced into the study of education began to receive general approval. In spite of the skepticism and the objection that education must forever remain an art, the realization grew that sound progress cannot be assured and accelerated by "impressions" or by the influence of strong personalities who reason without an accurate knowledge of facts. In education we have been peculiarly cursed with oracularism, the impressive setting forth of unproved opinions. "We can possibly cure ourselves of giving a conclusive opinion on every subject by bearing in mind that there is no proved science of our business; what it needs more than anything else just now is experimenters and provers rather than teachers who follow a law laid down by us. When a superintendent finds himself tilting back in his chair and talking to a teacher instead of listening to one, the angle of the chair, like the position of a railway semaphore, is a danger signal. It means, 'Be careful; you are going to oracularize in a moment; don't do it.'" <sup>1</sup>

Every student now recognizes that a program of education must be based on carefully gathered accurate information and that improvement of its techniques is best directed by the results of experiments planned and carried out with adequate meticulousness and persistence. This necessity being recognized, we have had for nearly a generation courses in all of the schools of education on how to conduct research. "The aim of the scientific method is to describe the impersonal facts of experience in verifiable terms as exactly as possible, as simply as possible, and as completely as possible. It is simply sincere critical thought, which admits conclusions only when they are based on

<sup>1</sup> William McAndrew. "The Plague of Personality," *School Review*, 22:315-325, May, 1914.



evidence. . . . It is criticized, systematized, and generalized knowledge.”<sup>1</sup>

**Criticism of Educational Research.**—For several reasons the attempt to introduce science into education has fallen far short of the beneficent results that reasonably were expected from it. In the first place, many who have conducted the courses have never appreciated the spirit of research or known the underlying principles of scientific inquiry. They have learned to apply the formulae of statistics, but too often they have no real understanding of their significance to the research itself. Statistics are for the purpose of helping one to ascertain the truth, and not for the purpose of justifying a presupposition. There is a type of worker who, in the words of Andrew Lang, “uses statistics as a drunken man uses lampposts—for support rather than illumination.” Probably only a small minority of students preparing to be teachers have, or should have attempted to get, any real understanding of statistical procedures. The majority would much better be taught the fundamental principles of research so that they can evaluate reported findings, interpret them, and plan for their use to influence common practices.

Without in any way depreciating the importance of research in education or minimizing the necessity for it in directing progress, the following criticisms may be made of much that has been published.

1. It is often concerned with problems that are, or seem to teachers, remote from the important needs of the schools. Some researches have been on actually trivial topics without possibility of any significant contribution to influence practice, and many more are the result of academic interest that often does not know the problems which unsolved impede progress. Valuable research springs from realization of an actual school difficulty or an obstacle or a conflict of opinion, and returns to indicate the proper or at least the preferred procedure.

2. It is too often isolated. A piece of research may be good in itself and potential of helpfulness if combined with other research to solve a practical problem of teaching. A well-made carburetor or spark plug is useless unless one has the other parts

<sup>1</sup> J. Arthur Thompson, *Introduction to Science*, p. 56. Henry Holt and Co., New York, 1911.



necessary to assemble them into an effective engine. To appreciate the failure of research to contribute all the essential knowledge for the formulation of an improved program one has only to list the questions that a practical teacher will ask when confronted with a problem, such as how best to educate exceptional pupils. The failure of research in this respect is in part due to a lack of time to answer all the necessary questions, but for the most part it is the result of the habit of research workers to study any problem that interests them without assuming responsibility for attacking other related problems which all together constitute the one of practical importance to teachers. There is too much wildcatting in research.

3. It is too often carried on under artificial conditions. The research worker may experiment in a laboratory, testing adult subjects with nonsense syllables, arbitrary symbols, or digits. The conclusions that he reaches may be entirely sound for these conditions, and yet they may not be true at all for children learning in their classrooms.

4. It often uses techniques, especially statistics, of which teachers have no understanding. Consequently when they attempt to read the published reports they find the major plan obscure and cannot be convinced by their own intelligent judgments that the conclusions are sound.

5. It too often announces only a tentative conclusion, which is not sufficient to justify a change in practical procedure. There are literally hundreds of published studies with only tentative conclusions which neither the original authors nor anyone else has attempted to carry on to a reliable conclusion.

6. It has not developed a conscientious practice of announcing evaluations made by competent critics of published investigations. Almost no classroom teachers are sufficiently trained to give to technical reports of studies such evaluation as they must have before the practitioner knows what conclusions he is justified in using.

7. It has developed in research workers in education no such habit as exists in other fields to prove a published study by repeating it—under the same or varied conditions, using the same or modified techniques. The fact that the reports of studies repeated to test reliability can be counted almost on one's fingers seems to be evidence that there is more interest in fiddling



with figures than concern with conclusions so convincingly sound that they will modify practice.

8. It usually publishes bare findings without accompanying them with interpretations that indicate their practical bearings. Most teachers are not trained to make such interpretations, and research workers who are competent are too much occupied with their own investigations to indicate what practical use can be made of the conclusions that are sound.

9. It has developed no machinery for insuring that sound conclusions properly interpreted are generally applied in practice. In this respect education peculiarly differs from every other professional field. When an important finding in medicine or physics or chemistry is published, all over the country it is proved and immediately applied in practice.

**Need of a Development Engineer in Education.**—It has been argued at length elsewhere that education is in need of some agent that will translate the results of scientific research into practice. Industry uses a development engineer, which education needs to use too. A development engineer is as well trained as most of the men who do research, better than some. His responsibility is to take what the theorist has found or what works in the laboratory and to make it work on a large scale in the factory. He understands the theory, but he understands also the machines and the operatives. He has to know and be able to work harmoniously with other human beings. In interpreting the abstract and in adapting it to concrete conditions he is in a sense as creative as the inventor. Without him industry would be much more wasteful and would make much less rapid progress toward effective production than now.

Here is a special career of great importance in education. Imagine what might not be achieved if we had actually in our classrooms every day someone who is informed of what research has proved, who understands the theory back of it all, who knows the children and the teacher, and who can direct the translation of what science has discovered into promising procedures which he supervises until they are effective under conditions as they exist. While doing all this, the development engineer in education would discover and refer to the research agencies for solution a steady stream of problems that grow out of experience. Our graduate schools have no more important



challenge than to prepare promising young men and women for such a career.

**“Experimenting.”**—The profession has come to give almost universal lip service to science in education. One visiting schools hears everywhere that “we are experimenting with” this or that, but in far too few instances are there provisions that the “experiment” is adequately planned, that measurement is made of the results, or that later practice is materially affected. One reason for this situation is that the ordinary schoolmaster feels himself incompetent to use the refined techniques of which he reads. But rough measures are better than none and, in fact, are often entirely adequate for the experiment that has been undertaken. It is altogether unnecessary to use the accurate tools of the cabinetmaker for delicate inlays when making a pine board shelf for the practical utility of holding cans of axle grease in a barn, nor is there need of a rule graduated to millimeters when measuring the acreage of land.

In almost every school there are teachers who, dissatisfied with conventional procedures, are continually trying new ones. They use a rough measure of actual trial, but have no convincing evidence that the apparent success or failure is real. These are the pioneers who push forward the frontiers of practice, but it must not be forgotten that in our country many pioneers ruined much land and eventually themselves through ignorance and the lack of proper tools. The dissatisfied, disturbed adventurers among the teachers are a constant challenge and an opportunity for the supervisor. Their spirit needs to be encouraged and directed. Each one is worth a score of plodders who continue in the old paths unconscious of inefficiencies and undisturbed by changes in educational theory, in the environment conditions, and in the personnel of the pupil body. Those who are concerned should be helped to carry on well-planned and proved experimentation, and in some instances encouraged to learn the refined techniques of more ambitious research.

**Types of Research.**—For practical purposes in education there are just three types of research: (1) that which seeks to find accurately significant facts; (2) that which measures growth, absolute or relative, from certain stimuli; and (3) that which determines the effects of some more or less isolated factor in the educative process on those being educated. For



each of these types special methods, some of them highly technical, have been invented, and detective work of the most ingenious character has at times been applied. But in essence research is the controlled application of common sense. Much of a practical nature can be carried on by teachers who have this common sense and assured knowledge of a few simple fundamentals of mathematics. This assertion is not meant to imply that research cannot be better and more convincingly done by the use of the highly technical procedures which have been devised, procedures that not infrequently divert experts from concern with practical problems and the application of their conclusions; it simply means that much valuable research is possible with simple techniques that are sound.

**Bureaus of Research.**—In many cities there are bureaus of research with well-trained and competent staffs. But although such bureaus can be of great aid to the supervisory program of a school, they cannot be counted on to do all that directed simple research by the teacher can reasonably be expected to accomplish. Without constant information by the teachers through their supervisor concerning the specific help that they need, a research bureau is likely to expend its efforts on problems that are of general concern, that are concerned with administration alone, or that are suggested by chance academic interests. There should be an endless effort by teachers to get from a bureau help on their problems which they state specifically as growing out of their work. When a bureau attempts to give such help as is requested it should thoroughly inform the teachers concerned of the plan of research and involve them in it so far as they are competent and can spare the time. The supervisor should protect the teachers from doing more routine clerical work than just enough to give them understanding and appreciation. It is wise for all of the teachers to be informed not only of the general plan of each piece of research undertaken in a school, but also of the conclusions reached and the applications that it is proposed to make of them.<sup>1</sup>

**Research by Others Outside the School System.**—There are numerous appeals to schools to coöperate in research carried on by professors and graduate students in colleges and universi-

<sup>1</sup> P. T. Rankin, "How an Instructional Research Department Can Help Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research*, 8:187-198, October, 1923.



ties. There is a professional obligation to assist such studies to an extent that is not too detrimental to the learning by the pupils. But there should be assurance that the teachers profit from their experience. In the first place, it is not unreasonable to demand that the experimenter explain and justify to the teachers the purpose and the general plan of the entire study, so that they may decide whether or not it is sufficiently important to warrant their assistance, and so that they may coöperate intelligently and at the same time learn something of what research is. In the second place, it is not unreasonable to demand that the teachers be informed from time to time of the progress of the study and certainly of the conclusions reached. No one has a right to ask that teachers furnish assistance blindly and mechanically and that they eventually know nothing of the results of their work. The criticisms and suggestions that an informed teacher can make to the investigator preceding and during the progress of the research will often be invaluable. And, finally, if the findings seem important, the school should ask that the experimenter, either in return for the help rendered him or as a professional service, aid the teachers to work out a plan for making practical application of them. Such a procedure would make teachers more interested in research, more confident of its conclusions, and some of them at least eager themselves to undertake such research as they are competent to do.

**Research by Teachers.**—There are kinds of simple research which teachers can carry on with beneficial results to educational practice as well as to themselves if the supervisor will furnish encouragement and direction. Such research will be suggested by their own realized difficulties, by proposals from any source of changes in procedure, and by differences of opinion. Teachers should be encouraged to find and definitely to formulate statements of the unsolved problems that hinder their effectiveness. In the beginning a problem chosen for study should not only be one that is real to the teacher, but also one that is not too difficult and that can be carried through to conclusion in a reasonably short period of time without requiring an inordinate amount of extra work. Many, perhaps most, of the practical problems of a teacher are relatively gross and require only simple procedures and statistics to check the unsupported conclusions



of common sense. Those who object that those proposed are crude should realize that any measure is better than none. A playground may be judged as sufficiently large for a certain group of children, which is measurement of a kind, or its area may be given in square yards, feet, or inches. Certainly the use of square inches for such measurement is an unnecessary and wasteful refinement.

Whatever the source of suggestion of a problem for research, the supervisor should judge its worth and its promise of beneficial results of all kinds, he should help the teacher to simplify it so that a promising study is possible, and he should coöperate in making the plans to be followed. If the supervisor suggests the problem, he must convince the teacher that it is important to him and worth the effort necessary for a solution. Usually a problem as first conceived is too big and complex for a single simple study: "How pupils should study," for instance, can be broken up into numerous small questions, such as "What amount of time do the pupils devote to study?" "How is the time given to study by each pupil related to his achievement?" "What is the effect of following a schedule for study?" "What are the differences in study by successful and by failing pupils?" "What improvement in study, if any, results from more careful assignments, having the pupils begin the study in the classroom under direction, teaching them to make an outline or synopsis of assigned readings, etc?" In making a plan for simple research, valuable help can usually be got from a college instructor, especially if either the supervisor or the teacher has studied under him.

*Two illustrations.*<sup>1</sup> In one instance a supervisor was disturbed by the fact that some of the oldest teachers habitually reprimanded and threatened the pupils. The matter was discussed in the weekly supervisory meeting, and a considerable group of the teachers argued that only by this method could the pupils be persuaded to do hard work. Representatives of this group agreed to conduct an experiment with pupils in the social studies. Lesson plans were made for three recitations, using jointly prepared new-type tests of roughly equal difficulty. After the

<sup>1</sup> These illustrations are reproduced from the author's article "Supervisory Experimentation," *School Review*, 41:737-746, December, 1933. In this article there are roughly outlined twenty studies such as teachers might properly undertake under the direction of a supervisor.



first test had been presented, the teachers looked over the test papers. Teacher A scolded her pupils for doing poorly and made the next assignment with threats of what would happen to those who did not do better. Teacher B expressed himself as pleased with the results, praised the pupils, and encouraged them to surpass their records the next day. After looking over the test papers of the second recitation period, the teachers reversed their procedures, Teacher A praising and encouraging, Teacher B criticizing and threatening. Then the third test followed the third recitation. When the teachers reported that on the second and third tests 86 per cent of the pupils who had been praised and encouraged made better scores as against only 14 per cent of the pupils who had been scolded and threatened, the supervisor had a sound basis on which to build for improving instruction in this one respect.

In one instance a teacher of Latin, scholarly in his attitude, well-trained, and successful in presenting details, so believed in the beneficence of his subject that he was deaf to any suggestion for venturing beyond drill on the details of his subject. When he stated that he expected, among the results of the study of Latin, an improvement in the spelling of English words, his supervisor helped him outline an experiment to measure the results. Two of the beginning classes were taught as usual, English derivatives being adduced as the Latin roots were learned. The other two classes were led to see the similarity in spelling and how the collocation of letters in the root words determines the spelling of English derivatives, and they then were drilled on the spelling of both Latin and English. After several weeks a spelling test so convinced the instructor of the superiority of the second method that he became one of the best teachers of English form in the entire school.

A type of simple research that can profitably be undertaken by a teacher is the repetition of a study, or a part of a study, that has been published, using the same or improved techniques perhaps somewhat modified because of necessary limitations. Such a repetition is peculiarly valuable to teach a person how to do research and to respect it, and to convince him of the soundness of the conclusions, especially when it is carried on under the actual conditions of the classroom and supplemented by the personal information which the teacher has of his pupils.



The importance of a teacher's repeating a study under classroom conditions is emphasized by Buckingham in the following passage.<sup>1</sup>

Consider also the investigations made by various psychologists on periods of practice. You will remember that Starch, for example, showed that when university students learned to write numbers for letters according to a code, and when the learning time of 120 minutes was divided into ten-minute periods, twenty-minute periods, forty-minute periods, and one period of 120 minutes, the greatest amount of learning was done in the shortest periods. This is indeed significant. If it will work in the classroom it is an important fact to know. Whether it will work with children as well as with university students and whether meaningful material may be substituted for nonsense material is a question on which the psychologist in his laboratory throws no sufficient light. No one can do this better than the teacher. Even if the graduate student goes out into the schools as Kirby did and gathers real data on this topic, or even if the school superintendent does this, it is the teacher who works the method and gathers the results at first hand. Why should not the teacher assume more responsibility? If short and frequent periods pay big dividends in learning the arithmetic combinations, or in adding columns of figures, or in acquiring a vocabulary in reading or in a foreign language, then the whole question of program making and of classroom technique is thrown wide open for research. Who can give us light on this better than the teacher?

Moreover, on this very question of the best length of practice period, each teacher and each corresponding class afford conditions sufficiently peculiar to require immediate and searching investigation on the spot. The best length of period differs among children of different grades and among children who are studying different subjects. The type of learning required—whether it be verbal as in learning of foreign language, manual as in wood work, or logical as in history—will also have a bearing on the question. Moreover, even in the same class pursuing the same kind of work, the individual differences among pupils will be considerable. To the teacher, therefore, I say, let no one persuade you that your opportunities for study and investigation are small. Do not suppose that educational research is appropriate only for the university professor or for those who belong to bureaus of research.

**Purposes of Encouraging Teachers to Do Research.**—The more important purposes that a supervisor may have in mind

<sup>1</sup> B. R. Buckingham, "The Public-School Teacher as a Research Worker," *Journal of Educational Research*, 11:235-243, April, 1925.



in encouraging and directing teachers to undertake simple research are the following

1. To get teachers out of a rut by realization of new challenges and the creation of new interests.
2. To interest teachers to understand the major principles of research and thus to develop a critical and appreciative interest in reading reports of researches by others.
3. To enable teachers to become concerned to interpret reported research and to find direction for the modification of their own practices.
4. To develop in teachers the scientific habit of mind, especially by explaining what its characteristics are, by showing its requirements in research, and by directing attention to illustrations of its use by others in published studies.
5. To foster openmindedness and the habit of suspending judgment until there is sufficient evidence to warrant a conclusion.
6. To develop self-confidence and a demand for proved truth rather than a dependence on the arbitrary expressions of opinions by "authorities."

The fresh point of view which research always engenders should not be denied to the teacher. The spirit of inquiry, of open-minded alertness to the problems which arise in teaching, will make the teacher free. It will lead him to seek problems and do something, even though it may be but a little, in their solution. Moreover, it will make him expert as a teacher and will make his calling more attractive. Indeed, when looked at from this point of view the teacher's occupation becomes fascinating. He has children to study—not stones, bugs, fossils or old manuscripts, but the most interesting of all possible materials—namely, human beings. Moreover, he has at hand human beings at their most engaging period—childhood and youth. And his children never grow old. In constant procession they present to him, always at the level of childhood, their innumerable interesting aspects. Yet each is different from the other—different in strength, talent, and character; different in origin, growth, and need. If teaching these children is to include studying them, the job of teaching takes on new meaning. Its scope is broadened. Its meaning is enriched. No other calling may then be compared with it. It is the great adventure.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> B. R. Buckingham, *op. cit.*



7. To break down prejudices and a stubborn faith in unsubstantiated statements by writers who are considered "authorities."

8. To enable teachers to learn what are proved principles and procedures of effective instruction.

9. To convince teachers of the soundness of certain suggestions of principles and procedures of which they have been stubbornly skeptical.

10. To enable teachers to direct simple researches by the pupils so that they too can learn the principles of scientific thinking and have directed practice in developing a habit of using them.

11. To motivate teachers to seek and to use other means of growth to satisfy revealed needs.

12. To motivate the more interested and promising teachers to further study in order that they may become to a greater degree expert in research.

13. To promote a spirit of coöperation between teachers by having two or more work together on the same similar research project.

14. To develop a willingness to coöperate intelligently with others who are conducting research.

15. To enable teachers to get the stimulus to professional pride and ambition by publishing the results of their researches and by reporting in print the problems for which the practical needs of the school demand solution.

16. To stimulate other teachers to similar effort.

17. To influence the administration and the public to have increased respect for the competence of teachers.

18. To disprove public criticism, such as that pupils achieve less now than formerly.

19. To make teachers more receptive of supervisory help to satisfy revealed needs. A teacher is most receptive when convinced of a need and he is most thoroughly convinced by what he himself has been able to reveal by objective evidence.

20. To influence supervision to an increased use of objective means to convince and thus better to help teachers.

**The Supervisor's Responsibilities.**—In order to direct experimentation and research by teachers the supervisor should himself have previously acquired a certain amount of knowledge



and of skill in the field. However, there is a certain advantage in his starting from the same point as the teachers if he has or can find the time for coöperative study of the required principles and techniques. Even though he is uniformed and cannot find the time for the necessary study, he can be of service in encouraging teachers who are interested to carry on simple research, in getting for them desired books and personal help from experts, in manifesting a constant interest, and in contributing suggestions and criticisms derived from common sense. However, every supervisor should himself be constantly experimenting, and to do so successfully and convincingly he needs to learn the simple fundamental methods and continually to apply them in arriving at conclusions regarding better practices.

Not every teacher can be expected to carry on research. Some for various reasons are not competent, some are uninterested, and some will consider it an unwarranted extra burden. The supervisor should be alert to discover the teachers who already are interested and perhaps because of realized difficulties are groping for help. They may be "experimenting" in the sense that they are trying innovations of various kinds, hoping that by a trial-and-error method they may discover success. They are already ripe to learn how to use better procedures to attain results that can be proved. They may have in mind problems which are worthy of study, but which usually will need to be broken up into small definite ones that profitably can be attacked. If not, they are usually hospitable to problems proposed to them, problems growing out of the general supervisory program, or they can be led to discover such problems by discussion of directed reading or of practice by themselves or by others. Fertility in discovering problems is one important characteristic of the research worker; another is fertility in proposing hypotheses for testing.

The supervisor, then, after identifying the teachers who are or can be interested in research, should be receptive to proposals by them of problems and he should also suggest problems that profitably can be attacked. When a selected problem is sufficiently defined, the supervisor should help or secure from experts help in planning the study so that the results have most probability of being sound and convincing. He should



also facilitate the study by making it administratively possible. Sometimes pupils have to be changed from one section to another; often supplies and clerical help need to be provided. After the research is under way the supervisor should manifest continuing interest, encouraging the teacher, stimulating his spirit which may flag after the first enthusiasm, and contributing such criticism and suggestions as from time to time are warranted.

When the research is completed, the supervisor should help the teacher study his data so as to interpret them properly and then plan for use of the conclusions that are substantiated. He can also stimulate the finding in the study of the data of other problems that need to be attacked. The person who has the true spirit of research will always find that one investigation leads to another, that, however comprehensive, no one can be complete in itself. These revealed problems should either be noted for subsequent study or reported to experts, preferably in the professional magazines, as those that the practical teacher needs to have solved in order that he may know how to teach better. Consideration of the procedures used in research and the resulting data will often reveal to the teacher need for further study, perhaps in systematic courses, in order that he may become more competent in a field that has challenged his interest. Any school that has on its staff a teacher who is expert in the field of research can use him profitably in carrying on needed study, in interpreting published articles, and in both stimulating and helping other teachers to develop in interpreting reports and in making simple studies of their own.

**Publish and Popularize.**—The supervisor should help a teacher who has carried on a research study that is respectable to write a report of it for publication. Summary reports of the results of repeating studies made by others are especially desirable inasmuch as they are so much needed and have been so infrequent in our professional literature, and whatever conclusions are justified will be of interest and probably of profit to others. Even if the report does not achieve publication, its preparation will be of value to the teacher in clarifying his mind, as Bacon said, and in seeing the whole with all of its parts properly related. Publication results in professional prestige and in a stimulus not only to the teacher himself, but also to his



colleagues, who naturally will be ambitious to achieve similar recognition.

Finally, the supervisor should popularize the research done by a teacher, partly to give him the credit that he deserves and to stimulate others to similar effort, but chiefly to make known results that should be generally used to improve instruction. Other teachers are likely to be more convinced by the results of a study done under normal conditions in their own school by one of their colleagues than by results reported by some remote expert who has carried on his study under unknown and perhaps artificial conditions. The supervisor will be wise if he also keeps the administration and the general public informed of such unusual professional work by the teachers.

**Techniques of Research.**—It is impracticable in a book of this nature to present even in outline the techniques of research. They can be found in such treatises as W. A. McCall's *How to Experiment in Education* and Good, Barr, and Scates's *The Methodology of Educational Research*. The simplest techniques and an abundant use of common sense should be sufficient for any research undertaken by a teacher without extensive formal training.

*A few illustrations.* Following are a few illustrations of practical questions and outlines of procedures which can be used to find answers that are considerably more reliable than subjective opinion unsupported by objective data.<sup>1</sup>

1. How do superior and weak pupils study?

Prepare carefully several short simple assignments, as nearly equivalent as possible, and decide precisely the steps that a pupil should take in carrying them out. Assignments to solve a problem, translate a few lines from a foreign language, or memorize something are especially good.

(a) Have each pupil write an account of what he does or attempts to do. Study especially the reports by superior and by weak pupils and compare their procedures with the ideal.

(b) Have selected superior and weak students perform one of the assignments in your presence, stating orally everything that he attempts to do.

(c) Observe these selected pupils while they attempt to carry

<sup>1</sup> Other problems for research can be found in the items listed in the bibliography under Barr and Burton, pp. 393-399, Briggs and McGregor, pp. 246-258.



out the assignment silently and see what additional information you can discover about their study habits.

From a study of the records what do you learn about the differences between the procedures of the two groups and about the needs of each pupil?

## 2. What superstitions do pupils believe?

(a) From the superstitions listed by the pupils as common in the community make a composite list of those reported most frequently. Have the pupils indicate their belief about each one: (1) that it is silly; (2) that there may be something to it; or (3) that it is true.

(b) Consider carefully and try to explain the reasons that pupils have for faith in the superstitions that they approve.

(c) What in the course of study should have destroyed the belief of the credulous pupils? Why has it been ineffective?

(d) What responsibility has education for destroying superstitions?

## 3. How long is knowledge retained?

(a) Without warning repeat several tests or examinations, especially those of the new-type that are fairly comprehensive, at varying intervals after they were originally taken. Correlate the responses of each pupil to each question on the two tests. What do the results indicate for teaching?

(b) From studying the correlations can you discover any kinds of information especially retained or forgotten? Can you explain the differences? What do your explanations indicate for future teaching?

## 4. What ability have pupils to make notes on lectures or on reading?

(a) Compare the pupils' notes on a well-organized lecture or unit of reading with those made by you. How many get the main point? How many relate to it, directly or indirectly, everything else that they record?

(b) Similarly compare notes on less obviously organized material.

(c) What improvement do the pupils make after measured amounts of instruction?

## 5. What practical applications has each element of grammar?

In order to make grammar functional, it is necessary to know all the applications that each element has to prevent or to



correct an error of expression. After making as complete a list as possible, answer the following questions:

(a) Which of the applications are adequately provided for in the courses of study?

(b) Which grammatical elements that have no functional application can properly be neglected?

6. What are the effects of giving to pupils along with the assignment answers by which they can check their solutions of mathematical problems?

In a series of assignments of drill problems, such as the solution of simultaneous equations, give out the correct answers on alternate days and have the pupils keep a record of the total time that they spend on each assignment in class as well as outside.

(a) What is the average amount of time spent by individual pupils and also by the whole class in solving each problem after each type of assignment?

(b) Why do the pupils like one type better than the other? What are the effects of their attitudes on their subsequent work in the class?

7. What transfer can pupils make of general abstract principles taught in class?

List a number of practical applications that can be made of some important abstract principle—such as that which determines good artistic spacing or color harmony, or as Gresham's Law in economics, or as the second law of thermodynamics in physics. After teaching the principle with the conventional illustrations, give a test to measure the pupils' ability to state it. Then, after an interval of time so that the principle is not at the front of attention, give a test requiring its application in several practical situations. For illustration, pupils may be asked to make a sketch showing how furniture and pictures may be pleasingly arranged against the wall of a room, or using a colored plate of precious or semi-precious stones<sup>1</sup> to select a stickpin for several neckties of different color. If such a test is combined with items that do not indicate the necessity of reference to the course, the measure of transfer will be more convincing.

What do the results indicate as to the wisdom of emphasizing

<sup>1</sup> See the plate of gems in Webster's New International Dictionary, p. 1042.



numerous applications along with the teaching of a principle?

8. What is the relation of the ability to correct grammatical errors and a knowledge of the principles of grammar?

(a) Give an extended test requiring the correction of important grammatical errors, such as the agreement of a relative pronoun with its antecedent. Preferably each type of error should be represented four or more times, each illustration separated from others of its kind. Tabulate for each pupil his constant successes and failures.

(b) Give a test on knowledge of the grammatical rules that govern the correction of the errors, and similarly record the results.

(c) Return the first test and require the pupils to give reasons for each correction made.

This study should reveal the probable use that pupils make of grammatical rules. It can as well be used for foreign languages as for English.

9. What are the effects of pretests?

After completely outlining a unit of teaching, prepare and administer a new-type test that measures all of the knowledge that it is hoped pupils will get from the experience. Study the results to see how much the pupils already know of what it is proposed to teach.

(a) What do the results indicate as to modification—by additions, reviews, or subtractions—of the unit?

(b) What effects on the attitudes of the pupils and on their motivation for work can be observed?

(c) Compare the results of the same test given at the end of the unit.

10. What are the effects of supplementary reading of popular science material?

Prepare a list of interesting popular readings on the science topics that are to be presented in a semester of general science, physics, or some other division of the field. Assign or suggest them to one class and conduct one or more parallel classes in the conventional way. Pair each pupil in the experimental group with one in the conventionally taught classes on the basis of I.Q., sex, and any other characteristics that seem important.

(a) Compare the total amount of time that members of each



pair give to the course. Include the outside reading with the conventional study preparation.

(b) Compare the knowledge manifested on the final test, which should include practical applications of principles.

(c) Ask for and compare ratings for interest in the subject.

(d) Ask for and compare intentions by the pupils to elect further study of the subject.

11. What is the best distribution of time for practice in acquiring a skill?

Arrange to have each pupil of a small group, selected on the basis of similar natural ability and ambition, distribute his practice of a skill—typewriting, for example—in different periods of time. Let one use each hour without interruption, another break it into two periods, another into three or four. Record the progress as evidenced by objective tests given from time to time.

(a) Which distribution seems to result in most progress?

(b) Is there any difference in the results manifested by pupils of high and of low natural ability?

(c) Do the results indicate any desirable pattern for practice?

12. What are the results from using systematic reviews of decreasing frequency?

A study of the Ebbinghaus curve shows how rapidly the mind forgets what is barely learned. Using two classes of approximately equal ability, teach one in the conventional manner and with the other use carefully prepared reviews on each topic (1) at the end of the teaching period, (2) the next day, (3) the next week, and (4) approximately a month later. Contrast at the end of the semester the knowledge retained by the experimental and by the entire control group.

13. What are the results of using a large amount of easy reading in learning a foreign language?

Form two classes of similar ability. Conduct one according to the usual procedure, emphasizing exactness and completeness of learning. Allowing the experimental group somewhat more freedom from exact requirements, require them to do as large an amount as possible of exceedingly easy reading. At the end of the semester

(a) Compare the abilities of the two groups to understand a sight passage of reasonable difficulty;



(b) Compare the knowledge of syntax and vocabulary;

(c) Compare the attitudes toward the subject.

14. What are the effects of group study?

Using two classes or sections of approximately the same ability, require the pupils of one to carry on their study individually; permit the others to study in small groups.

(a) Is there any difference in total achievement after a reasonable time by the pupils in the two groups?

(b) What evidence can you find that shows good or bad results for individuals in the experimental group?

(c) Are the results different for different types of study, e.g., for translation, for memorization, for creation, for problem solving, and the like?

## EXERCISES

1. Examine several issues of educational journals that carry reports of research and see how many of them concern problems that are important in your work. What conclusions from this inquiry can you draw as to research in education?

2. Set down problems arising in the work in your school that you think should be solved by research. By consulting the standard books and indexes see what research has been done on any important one. Do its conclusions satisfy you and indicate procedures that should be followed?

3. What problems on which you can find no reports of research can you properly propose to experts for attack? Which ones do you think that you with some assistance could attempt to solve in your school classes?

4. Can you find a report of some piece of research which is so simply planned and carried out that you can successfully repeat all or an integral part of it under the actual conditions of the classroom? If you do repeat such an experiment, report it to one of the journals for publication.

5. See if you can add to those listed at the end of the chapter five good problems and plans for procedure.

6. With a group of interested teachers select one of the problems listed at the end of the chapter or a similar one, plan in detail how it may be solved, getting from some expert such advice as you may need, conduct the necessary research, and interpret the results to see what changes in practice are warranted.



## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- J. C. Almack, *Research and Thesis Writing*. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930.
- A. S. Barr and William H. Burton, *The Supervision of Instruction*, pp. 341-400. D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1926.
- Thomas H. Briggs, "Supervisory Experimentation," *School Review*, 41:737-746, December, 1933.
- B. R. Buckingham, "The Public School Teacher as a Research Worker," *Journal of Educational Research*, 11:235-243, April, 1925.
- B. R. Buckingham, *Research for Teachers*. Silver Burdett Co., 1926.
- C. C. Crawford, *The Technique of Research in Education*. University of Southern California, 1928.
- Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, *Creative Supervision*, Eighth Yearbook, 1930, pp. 343-346.
- Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr, and Douglas E. Scates, *The Methodology of Educational Research*. D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936.
- George C. Kyte, *How to Supervise*, pp. 361-380. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930.
- W. A. McCall, *How to Experiment in Education*. The Macmillan Company, 1923.
- W. A. McCall, "Methods and Techniques of Educational Research," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. IV, No. 1, February, 1934.
- A. Laura McGregor, *The Junior High School Teacher*, pp. 246-259. Doubleday, Doran and Co., Inc., New York, 1929.
- Walter S. Monroe and Max D. Engelhart, *The Scientific Study of Educational Problems*. The Macmillan Company, 1936.
- P. T. Rankin, *Survey Techniques for the Experimental Determination of the Value of Materials and Methods*, Second Yearbook of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, Chapter XVII, 1929.
- P. V. Sangren, "The Participation of the Classroom Teacher in Educational Research," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 15:593-601, November, 1929.
- Douglas Waples, "A Technique for Investigations in Classroom Method," *Journal of Educational Research*, 11:254-268, April, 1925.
- J. Wayne Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Experimental School Practices*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936.



## CHAPTER XIX

---

### EVALUATING SUPERVISION

---

**I. The Problem.**—In this book there have been presented numerous arguments for supervision, basic principles on which it should be built, and many suggestions regarding what a supervisor can do with reasonable expectation of success. At this point one may properly ask, “What is the evidence that supervision is effective, that it justifies the cost in time, effort, and money?” One who considers entering upon a program for improving teachers in the school for which he is responsible wants to know whether it is worth while, and having carried on a program he naturally seeks evidence to justify it to himself and to others.

This question as proposed really consists of three parts. The first, “What are the proved general results of supervision?” cannot be answered, for supervision is of many kinds, and each kind may be carried on with varying skills in widely varied settings. It varies not only in program but also in the administration of that program with individual teachers and at different times. Many factors, some of them beyond the control of the supervisor, constantly and irregularly play on a teacher and condition his growth. The influence of each factor may be strong or weak in isolation or in peculiar combinations with others, and the total influence on a teacher’s growth may be decisively beneficent or destructive regardless of the attempted supervisory program. This question cannot be answered because supervision does not mean to all people unvaryingly one thing; and even if it did, its effects cannot be isolated from those caused by the combination of other factors that promote or hinder professional growth.

The second implied question is, “What are the effects of the supervision as practiced in a single school with all or with a selected group of its teachers?” Although it is still impossible entirely to isolate the effects of supervision, it is possible to get



a fairly valid and reliable answer if measurement is made with a sufficiently large number of teachers over a sufficiently long span of time, for then other factors tend to cancel one another out. The one influence that can be marked as constant is the supervision. If it is not strong enough to overcome the influence of the other variables, it simply is not effective under the prevailing conditions, and to be justified it must be adapted and improved. When careful studies have been made, the evidence is that "improvement in pupils' achievement occurs in every subject which is given sound supervisory attention."<sup>1</sup> This being true, the question becomes one of evaluating the amount of improvement in terms of the cost.

The third implied question is, "What are the results of the several parts of the supervisory program?" Although it is still difficult to isolate the effects of any one supervisory activity, it has been done with a reasonable degree of reliability. Houston, for example, worked for five and six weeks in two junior high schools in which he had no previous connection to improve the efficiency in questioning by a group of teachers who were having at the time no other supervision. In that period he succeeded in reducing the average number of questions asked during a class period from 37 to 16, in practically doubling the amount of pupil participation, in increasing the average number of natural questions asked by pupils from 0 to 9, the percentage of teacher questions definitely related to the purpose of the lesson from 37 to 77, the average number of questions requiring the use of facts in their relationship from 5 to 9; in reducing the average number of questions repeated by the teacher from 11 to none, the average number of answers repeated by the teacher from 7 to none, and the average number of teacher interruptions of pupils' responses from 10 to one. He also judged from a study of stenographically reported lessons that the planning had materially improved.<sup>2</sup> In various other studies attempts have been made to answer this question by procuring judgments by teachers as to the values set from their experiences on the several elements of supervision.

The measurement of the effects of supervision must ultimately

<sup>1</sup> George C. Kyte, "Conclusions Derived from Experimental Studies on the Value of Supervision," *Journal of Educational Method*, 10:403-407, April, 1931.

<sup>2</sup> Victor M. Houston, "Improving the Quality of Classroom Questions and Questioning," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 24:17-28, January, 1938.



be made in terms of the increased and properly directed growth of the pupils. It seems a sound assumption that this is in large measure determined by the wisdom and skill of teachers in selecting objectives, in preparing or approving proposed educative experiences, in motivating and directing the learning by pupils, always recognizing and providing for individual differences, and in finding and convincingly revealing opportunities for such extended use of what has been learned that it is stamped in for permanent possession and continued application. But teaching is a complex of variable factors, any one of which by neglect or over-emphasis may lessen or make impossible desired results. The carefully prepared combination of factors that fails with one group today may prove highly efficacious with another group tomorrow. Learning is similarly complex, and is influenced more often than usually is realized by factors outside the school that are often unrecognized by the teacher. It should be realized that no measuring rod can be adequate to measure all growth by teachers or by pupils.

Courtis has pointed out <sup>1</sup> that

in the appraisal of the results of supervision there are . . . really three problems.

1. Measurement of the amount of supervision teachers receive.
2. Measurement of the changes produced in teachers by the supervision received.
3. Measurement of the effect upon the children by the changes in the teachers produced by the supervision.

**II. Reported Results.**—In *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision* <sup>2</sup> there are reported the measured results of supervision by various studies under four heads:

1. "Evaluation of supervision in terms of measured changes in the achievement of pupils.
2. "Evaluation of supervision in terms of measured changes in teaching procedures.
3. "Evaluation of supervision in terms of observed changes in the teaching and learning situation and in the community.
4. "Evaluation of supervision in terms of judgments of individuals."

<sup>1</sup> S. A. Courtis, "Problems in the Appraisal of Supervision," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 15:269-278, April, 1929.

<sup>2</sup> Eighth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1930, pp. 98-140.



Under the last head should be considered the method employed by Kyte and Hersh who used "a jury of experts" to judge the relative merits of ten pairs of stenographically reported lessons, one set being taught before and the other after a series of supervisory conferences. "The study showed that specific improvements in teaching result from a supervisory conference held with the teacher."<sup>1</sup>

The summary of research studies on the evaluation of supervision as given in the yearbook just quoted follows. Although practically all of the practices considered were in elementary schools, it is reasonable to suppose that similar results would be found on any level of instruction.

1. The contributions to the growth of children, due to supervision, are presented in about thirty research studies, most of which have involved experimentation using equivalent groups. In a few questionnaire studies teachers have expressed their belief that supervisory activities have materially aided in furthering pupils' growth. Some twenty-five experiments involving measurement indicate that significant gains have been made in the achievements of pupils taught by supervised teachers. The investigations have included testing children's growth in many of the school subjects but especially in the "Three R's." Accumulated records have been used to disclose other types of desired changes, such as increased interest in school and school work, regularity of attendance, continuation in school, better progress records, and higher standards of living outside of school.

2. Twelve of the studies involving the use of questionnaires, case studies, accredited juries, and score cards, and about as many studies involving experimentation and measurement, indicate that the effectiveness of supervision on the educational welfare of children has been due to its effect on teachers. Frequently teachers have expressed their approval of supervision and indicated what they considered to be the right kind—the kind which helped them. Repeatedly they have placed high on the list of effective types of supervisory activities demonstration teaching, group meetings, personal conferences, and courses of study. Helpful, constructive suggestions, constructive criticism, and definite outlines of work, dealing with methods, management, subjects, and instructional materials, appeared on almost all lists of aids welcomed by the teachers.

<sup>1</sup> *The Evaluation of Supervision*, pp. 63–64. Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association, 1931.



That the approval of such supervision is warranted is to be seen in the results obtained in the experiments. Records of changes in teachers' educational interests, professional study, modifications of teaching, and the like indicate the effects attributed to programs of supervision in operation. Few studies, however, indicate conclusively the improvement of teachers due to a specific type of supervisory activity. Some indications of the effectiveness of individual conferences, group meetings, and demonstrations are to be found in the conclusions, but the amount of experimental evidence is small.

Many complicating factors which are extremely difficult to control in experimentation affect the results. Some thirteen questionnaire studies and a few experimental ones show clearly the significant part that the personality and the philosophy of the supervisor play in any investigation. They point with marked agreement to some desirable personal factors which should be characteristic of the supervisor who may be expected to meet with success in his efforts in so far as his personality becomes a serious influence on supervisory results attained. General and specific reactions of teachers in their replies to questionnaires disclose that supervisors should give encouragement to teachers, be sympathetic, exhibit tactfulness.

3. A few questionnaire studies indicate the relative effectiveness of specific types of supervisory activities as judged by teachers and by principals. Three other investigations involving the use of questionnaires deal specifically with the merits of one type of supervisory activity. The small groups of studies furnish little evidence of an irrefutable nature which supports the judgment of those replying to the questionnaires.

Five experimental studies, however, furnish measured results which indicate the significant contributions of certain supervisory activities to supervisory efficiency. One of the investigations shows that a supervisory conference following a supervisory observation of teaching produces improvement in teaching which can be clearly seen at the next observation of teaching. Another study indicates that the supervisory time devoted to personal conferences tends to be more effective than the same amount of time devoted to group meetings. Two other investigations involving similar research techniques but treating with the supervision of different school subjects result in findings which agree markedly. They show the relative value of four supervisory programs to be, in descending order, as follows: supervision by classes, supervision by schools, inspection of schools, and no supervision. The fifth investigation indicates the relative values of three programs of supervision.



each of which is influenced by a specific type of educational philosophy.<sup>1</sup>

**III. Techniques for Measurement.**—If one desires to estimate, by formal or by informal research, the results of any phase of supervision, he may find it helpful to use one or more of the following suggestions:

1. Make a quantitative review of the supervisory activities used, recording the amount of time devoted to teachers meetings, conferences, and the like. A "Check List for Self-Analysis" is given on pages 103–107 of the Yearbook previously quoted. An estimate of the probable value of each activity may be made by the supervisor himself, with or without the aid of others whose assistance he invites.

2. Compare a quantitative record of a teacher's activities before a supervisory unit with one made afterward. The assumption will here have to be made that the extent to which suggestions are followed is evidence of improved learning by the pupils.

3. Compare similarly qualitative estimates of a teacher's practices made before and after a supervisory unit. Although the criteria will be highly subjective, they are likely to be sufficiently valid to give a fairly good idea of whether or not improvement is being manifested.

4. Compare quantitative records of pupil activities before and after a supervisory unit. This and the second suggestion above were the techniques used by Houston.

5. Compare qualitative records of pupil activities before and after a supervisory unit.

6. Compare the scores made on carefully selected or devised tests by pupils who have been taught by a supervised teacher with those of a similar group of pupils taught by a teacher without supervision or by a similar class taught by the same teacher previous to supervision. Care must be taken to recognize as exactly as possible precisely what the tests measure. As it will be difficult to get groups entirely comparable, the comparison will indicate only approximate results; only the median score and an index of dispersal should be used. The longer the period of supervision, the more reliable the comparison is likely to be.

7. Consider the indirect results of supervision, such as the

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 65–67.



happiness of the pupils in their work; the increased ambition, alertness, and interest of the teachers; the satisfaction of parents; and the like—either estimated by the supervisor or reported from an inquiry.

8. Consider the judgments of the teachers on the helpfulness of supervision, as a whole. Such judgments may be got from an anonymous questionnaire or from a carefully prepared rating sheet.

9. Consider the judgments of teachers similarly obtained as to the helpfulness to them of special types of supervision. Entire agreement should not be expected in these reports, for the estimated values will necessarily vary with the pertinence and timeliness of the help given and with the readiness of the teachers to receive it.

**IV. Exact Appraisal Not Yet Made.**—Although there is some evidence to justify the supervisory activities carried on in certain situations and although some further fairly valid and reliable evidence can be got, we are on fairly safe ground now if we merely make a case for supervision on the reasonableness of the program proposed. It is true that where there is a difference, there can be a measurement. But there is a serious doubt of the wisdom of expending ingenuity and effort at the present time in attempting evaluation when there is so little skilled persistent supervision in our secondary schools. The case for supervision of the kind advocated is abundantly justified by its obvious need, its possibilities, and the reasonableness of the proposed procedures. There is so much variation in every situation from that in any other one, and each procedure will be so conditioned by varied combinations of factors that even valid and reliable measured results in one school cannot be expected elsewhere. Moreover, the real and most important results are those that will be manifested not immediately but cumulatively through future service.

Supervision as emphasized in this book intends to develop in teachers growth in effectiveness primarily by means of the understanding of basic principles of education and of teaching. By these means it has the same intention that Christian Kold had when he said, "Come into my school and I will wind you up so that you will never run down." The cost of supervision will be abundantly justified if it increases the teachers' effec-



tiveness cumulatively each year even by a small percentage. The sum of a geometric series is surprisingly great. If understanding and appreciative acceptance of principles are coupled with conscience and professional ambition, growth should be continuous. It is as impossible to assign a single cause to any unit of professional growth as it is to development of the physical organism.

The principal who feels a responsibility for helping teachers to grow in service instead of being too eager to measure results would better ask himself such questions as the following:

1. Are the precepts and principles herein proposed sound in theory?

2. Which of them can I most profitably select for immediate use in my situation?

3. In what respects should I modify them or substitute others that promise beneficent results?

4. How can I present the basic principles, one at a time, so that the teachers, each with special needs, will comprehend, approve, and adopt them as their own?

5. How can I discover peculiar potentialities and determine readiness for growth in each teacher and then furnish such stimulus and direction as to insure continued development?

6. Is there anything more important that I can do?

Supervision requires long, careful, and skilled preparation, and also unremitting effort, with the certainty that evidences of success will usually be slow and discouragingly small. Supervision is the job of one who can retain his faith in the face of many disappointments. It is easier to get quick results from corrective supervision, even from that which officially tells weak teachers the procedures that they should use for immediate improvement. But, as has been argued at length, this is not best in the long run. Preventive supervision is next easiest, though it is difficult if not impossible entirely to prove its effects. Promotive and creative supervision, the highest types and the most promising in the long run, yield their results slowly. Some teachers, especially those limited in abilities and mechanical in procedure, will profit little from it. Others will get from fundamental principles an illuminating flash that will release latent powers or light a steady beacon which not only indicates the route to follow but also encourages them to steady confident



progress. There are few sudden miracles to be expected from supervision. For the most part one can hope for only gradual and irregular growth in effectiveness and, what is more important, in competence for self-directed development.

The results of supervision are conditioned by the material with which it works. Intelligence, professional spirit, devotion, industry, dissatisfaction with less than the best, willingness to experiment, and the desire to grow are the characteristics that most challenge a supervisor. Although he may and should at need patch here and there the procedures of the teachers who are mechanically minded and satisfied, he should never forget that the greatest opportunity lies with those who have already manifested superior qualities. Once fired with understanding and professional spirit, they are eager and increasingly competent for self-directed progress.

My comrade who with reluctance left his nook  
And at my urging set upon the road  
That winds and winds precipitously upward  
Now sprang forward in his eagerness  
To conquer what he thought the last hard height.  
Having passed that way before I knew it well:  
From this crest one would see many more  
Rolling on and upward far as eye could reach,  
Enough to weight the feet with hopeless lead.  
But with the view my comrade sprang ahead,  
Glorying in his new-found strength, and cried,  
"Look! there's more to do, more heights to climb,  
So much ahead we have no time to lose."



THE JAMMU & KASHMIR UNIVERSITY  
LIBRARY.

**DATE LOANED**

Class No. \_\_\_\_\_ Book No. 5112

Vol. \_\_\_\_\_ Copy \_\_\_\_\_

Accession No. ~~1482~~

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal blue lines. There are three vertical red lines that divide the page into four columns. The leftmost column is the widest, followed by the second column, and then the third and fourth columns which are narrower and appear to be of equal width. The paper has some minor smudges and faint markings, particularly near the top left corner.



## INDEX OF PERSONS

---

- Alberty, H. B., 70, 151  
 Alstetter, M. L., 81  
 Anderson, C. J., 384, 488, 491  
 Ayer, F. C., 24, 57, 96  
  
 Bachman, F. P., 36  
 Baker, H. J., 537  
 Barr, A. S., 47, 57, 74-75, 331, 337, 384, 564  
 Beatley, Bancroft, 110-111  
 Berg, G. H., 454-457  
 Billett, R. O., 27-30, 32-33, 55  
 Boardman, C. W., 57, 151  
 Briggs, T. H., 38, 46, 82, 140, 202, 414, 507, 509, 531-532, 534-536, 538-540, 557-558, 564  
 Browning, Robert, 144  
 Buckingham, B. R., 33, 332-334, 559, 560  
 Burke, A. S., 80, 81  
 Burton, W. H., 55, 74-75, 354, 564  
 Bush, Maybelle, 384  
  
 Chewning, J. O., 126  
 Confucius, 154  
 Connor, W. L., 515  
 Curtis, S. A., 574  
 Crabtree, J. W., 74  
 Crawford, A. B., 290  
 Cubberley, E. P., 73, 124, 126  
  
 Davis, C. O., 96, 105-106, 403  
 Dewey, John, 246, 271-272, 273, 280, 283, 299  
 Dodd, M. R., 146  
 Douglass, H. R., 57, 151  
 Drewry, R. G., 338  
  
 Eikenberry, D. H., 84  
  
 Flemming, C. W., 537  
  
 Garretson, O. K., 97  
 Gilchrist, R. S., 81  
 Gist, Arthur, 76-78, 151  
  
 Haldane, J. S., 145  
 Hall, G. S., 415  
  
 Hanson, E. M., 21  
 Hein, H. E., 411  
 Hawkes, H. E., 526, 528  
 Hayes, F. B., 43  
 Hillegas, M. B., 176  
 Houston, V. M., 572  
 Hughes, J. M., 308, 309, 321, 350  
  
 Jacobsen, E. W., 93  
 James, William, 416  
 Johnson, F. W., 113-114  
 Johnson, P. O., 39-40  
  
 Kefauver, G. N., 84  
 Kendall, C. N., 35  
 Kenwood, M. B., 75-76  
 Kipling, Rudyard, 275  
 Klopp, W. J., 55  
 Knudsen, C. W., 533  
 Koch, H. D., 112  
 Kold, Christian, 412, 577  
 Koos, L. V., 404, 441  
 Kyte, G. C., 109, 148, 331, 368, 403, 572  
  
 Learned, W. S., 291  
 Lee, J. M., 498-549 *passim*  
 Leonard, J. P., 537  
 Lindquist, E. F., 526-528  
 Lord, L. C., 358  
  
 Maddock, W. H., 465  
 Mann, C. R., 526-528  
 McAndrew, William, 550, 564  
 McCallister, J. M., 533  
 McConn, Max, 513  
 Melby, E. O., 24, 32, 308, 309, 350  
 Meredith, G. H., 150  
 Moore, C. B., 35  
 Morrison, R. H., 75  
  
 Osborn, W. J., 516  
  
 Pierce, P. R., 107  
 Plautus, 276  
 Puckett, R. C., 337



Rahn, Grant, 523  
Rankin, P. T., 555  
Reavis, G. H., 44-45, 173, 185  
Richardson, J. W., 541  
Royce, Josiah, 191

Sanguinet, E. N., 96  
Sass, D. M., 186  
Saunders, M. O., 43-44  
Shannon, J. R., 350  
Simpson, I. J., 488, 491  
Smith, L. W., 413  
Smith, T. V., 146-147  
Spencer, P. R., 93  
Stanton, E. G., 185  
Symonds, P. M., 509, 513

Thayer, V. T., 70, 151  
Thompson, J. A., 551  
Tiegs, E. W., 500

Tildsley, J. L., 409, 410  
Tillinghast, C. C., 81  
Trabue, M. R., 349-350  
Traxler, A. E., 533  
Tyler, R. W., 46, 529

Umstattd, J. G., 39-40

Van Denburg, J. K., 71

Waples, Douglas, 21, 442  
Weidemann, C. C., 523, 528  
Wells, H. G., 147, 283  
Wetzel, W. A., 46  
White, L. D., 414  
Whitman, Walt, 412  
Woellner, Robert, 185  
Wolfner, B. J., 404  
Woodring, M. N., 487  
Wrightstone, J. W., 522



## INDEX OF SUBJECTS

---

- Achievement tests, 537-540
- Administration, for instruction, 99;  
for supervision, 99, 176-180; of  
teachers meetings, 446-450
- Adult education, 127
- Advantages of purposeful learning,  
285-294
- After the conference, 378-379
- Alice in Wonderland*, 197
- Articulation of Units of American Ed-  
ucation*, 96
- Attitudes, 509; emotionalized, 202;  
of teachers toward being observed,  
309-310; toward conferences, 351-  
352; toward institutes and lectures,  
473; toward objectives, 194-195;  
toward study, 466-467; toward su-  
pervision, 43-53, 181-182; toward  
teachers meetings, 403-404; toward  
testing, 539-542
  
- Barstow Foundation, 215-216
- Basic suggestions for teachers meet-  
ings, 450-453
- Basis of supervision, 191-212
- Bibliography, on conferences, 397-  
398; on job analysis and prophecy,  
243-245; on measurement, 548-  
549; on motivation, 276-277; on  
other means of supervision, 495-  
497; on principles of supervision,  
160; on purposes for teachers, 266-  
268; on sociology, 165; on super-  
visory experimentation, 570; on  
teachers meetings, 457-458
- Board of Education, 101-103
- Building, knowledge of, 172-173
- Bulletins, 459-464
  
- Cabinet, principal's, 114, 409-410;  
superintendent's, 408
- Characteristics of a good definition,  
199-207
- Checking lists, 338-340
- Cheever's *Accidence*, 269
- Classroom observations, 308-348:  
common practices, 308-309; de-  
vices to aid, 337-341; exercises on,  
347-348; good manners, 323-330;  
obstacles, 316-317; on call, 320-  
321; planned and scheduled, 318-  
320; preparation for, 321-323; pur-  
poses of, 310-316; teachers' atti-  
tudes toward, 309-310; types, 317-  
321; using and preserving reports,  
345; what to observe, 331-336
- Classroom Teacher at Work in Ameri-  
can Schools*, 103
- Coefficients of correlation, 519-521
- Committee on Orientation of Second-  
ary Education, 4, 417, 418
- Community, knowledge of, 165-167;  
principal's relations with, 123-127
- Concomitant learnings, 275, 284
- Conferences. *See* Supervisory confer-  
ences
- Constructive supervision, 23
- Coöperative Test Service, 537
- Coördinate system for supervision,  
57-58
- Corrective supervision, 20-21
- Correlation, coefficient of, 519-521
- Correspondence courses, 469
- Creative supervision, 24-25
- Criteria, of cruciality, 225-228; of  
definitions, 199-207; of frequency,  
225; of generality, 228-229; of per-  
manence, 229-230; of purposes,  
255-257
- Cultural growth, 82-83, 95
- Current Problems of Supervision*, 139  
147, 195
  
- Definite purposes, 256
- Definitions of education, character-  
istics of, 199-207; quoted, 208-211
- Democracy in supervision, 148-153,  
433-434
- Demonstration teaching, 174, 482-  
488
- Department heads, 112-116
- Department meetings, 410-411
- Development engineer, 553-554
- Diagnosis tests, 532-537



- Dictionary Test, 531-532  
 Difficulties of beginning teachers, 39-40  
 Directed reading, 477-482  
 Directed study, 464-470  
 Directed visiting, 488-492  
 Discipline, 179-180  
*Drums of the Fore and Aft*, 250-251  
 Dualistic organization for supervision, 54-55  
  
 Economies in testing, 521-522  
 Education and society, 191-193  
*Education Index*, 337  
 Educational research, criticism of, 551-553  
 Emotionalized attitudes, 202  
 English Form Test, 534-536  
 Environment, favorable to supervision, 152-153; knowledge of, 165  
 Equipment, knowledge of, 172-173  
 Essay examinations, 522-530  
 Ethical codes, 217-219  
 Evaluating supervision, 571-579; the problem, 571-573; reported results, 573-576; technique of measurement, 576-577  
*Evaluation of Supervision*, 93, 574-576  
 Examinations, 522-530; open-book, 532  
 Exercises, classroom observation, 347-348; Golden Rules, 240-243; improving instruction, 34, 52-53; meaning of supervision, 19; measurement in supervision, 546-548; organization for supervision, 67; other means of supervision, 492-495; planning for supervision, 189-190; principles of supervision, 159-160; principal a responsible leader, 99-105; principal's relations with others, 128-131; purposes for pupils, 305-307; purposes for teachers, 265-266; supervisory conferences, 379-397; supervisory experimentation, 569; types and means of supervision, 34; ultimate basis of supervision, 208-212  
 Experimentation, 87-88, 175  
 "Experimenting," 554  
 Extension courses, 467-469  
  
 Failure of pupils, 41-42  
 Finding purposes, 259-260  
  
 Freedom, 213-217  
*Functions of Secondary Education*, 417-418  
  
 German Reich, 147  
 Golden Rules of Education, 213-245  
 Good manners in observing classes, 223-230  
*Great Investment*, 414  
 Group conferences. *See* Teachers meetings  
  
 Habit formation, 275-276  
 Hampden County study, 30-31, 466  
 Heads of department, 112-116  
 Hierarchies of purposes, 252-254  
 Higher activities, 232-235  
  
 Illustration of economical learning, 292-294  
 Illustrative lessons, 249-254  
 Incentives, 273-274  
*Incident of the French Camp*, 249-250  
 Individualism of teachers, 400  
 Informal study groups, 472  
 Informality in supervision, 136-137  
 Initiating supervision, 188-189  
 Inspiration, 429-430  
 Institutes, 472-477  
 Integration, 413-414  
*Issues of Secondary Education*, 417  
  
 Job analysis, 221-222  
  
 Kinds of knowledge, 504, 523  
  
 Leadership by principal in supervision, 68-100  
*Leadership in Instruction*, 376  
 Lectures, 472-477  
 Letters, from Helen Markham, 122; from Julia Weeks, 123  
 Line and staff organization for supervision, 55-57  
 Local needs, 5  
 Logical organization, 298-299  
  
 Machinery of supervision, 137  
 Manners when observing, 323-330  
 Maryland teachers quoted, 47-49  
 Materials, provision of, 178-179  
 Meaning of supervision, 1-19  
 Means and ends, 247  
 Means, of leading teachers to approve the thesis on pupil purposes, 299-305; of leading teachers to seek



- worthy purposes, 260-265; of supervision, 25-33, 173-176
- Measurement in supervision, 4, 498-549: achievement tests, 537-540; attitudes toward testing, 539-542; bibliography, 548-549; diagnostic tests, 532-537; exercises, 546-548; new type and essay examinations, 522-530; practices, 516-522; purposes, 499-516; teaching tests, 531-532; testing program, 542-546; types of tests, 530-540
- Morale, 116, 414-415
- Motivation, bibliography, 276-277
- Motives, 274-277
- Nagging, 135
- National Conferences of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, 21, 45
- National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 124
- National Survey of Secondary Education, 27, 30, 55, 80, 97, 185
- Neglect of supervision, causes of, 180-188
- New type tests, 523-530
- Norms of standardized tests, 504
- North Central Association Quarterly*, 37
- Objections to thesis on pupils' purposes, 294-299
- Objectives, teachers' attitudes toward, 194-196; concern of pupils and public, 196-197
- Obligations and rights of teachers, 151-152
- Observation of classes. *See* Classroom observation
- Obstacles to classroom observation, 316-317
- Open-book examination, 532
- Open house, 125
- Organization for administration, 99
- Organization for supervision, 54-67; coördinate system, 57-58; dualistic system, 54-55; line and staff, 55-57; types of, 54-62, 176-180
- Other means of supervision, 459-497: bibliography, 495-497; bulletins, 459-464; demonstration teaching, 482-488; directed reading, 477-482; directed study, 464-470; directed visiting, 488-492; exercises, 492-495; institutes, 472-477; lectures, 472-477
- Parents, principal's relations with, 126-127
- Personality of the principal, 74-78
- Philosophy in supervision, 145-148
- Planned observations, 318-320
- Planning, for teachers meetings, 434-440; for supervision, 144-145, 161-190
- Positive principles of supervision, 136-159
- Post-observation conference, 363-365
- Practices in measurement, 516-522
- Pragmatism, 204-206
- Praise, 158
- Preparation, for conferences, 365-370; for observational visits, 321-323; for teachers meetings, 434-440
- Prestidigitation, 281
- Pre-teaching conference, 360-363
- Pre-tests, 530-531
- Preventive supervision, 21-23
- Principal at Work on His Problems*, 61
- Principal, a responsible leader, 68-100; as a supervisor, 33, 98, *et passim*; distribution of his time, 96-99; education of, 78-85; growth, 85-95; major responsibilities, 95-99; planning supervision, 161 ff.; means of growth, 86-95; relations with others, 101-150
- Principal as a supervisor, 33, 309, 412
- Principal's cabinet, 114, 409-410
- Principles, of organization for supervision, 62-66; of supervision, 132-159
- Professional library, 480
- Professional reading by teachers, 477-482
- Professional study, 464-472
- Prognostic tests, 530
- Pupil failure, 41-42
- Pupils, assignment of, 177-178; knowledge of, 167-169
- Pupils' attitudes toward testing, 541-542
- Purposes, in supervision, 193-194; for pupils, 269-307; for teachers, 246-268; of classroom observation, 310-316; of conferences, 352-360; of measurement, 499-516; of testing program, 542-546



- Purposes for pupils, 269-307; thesis on, 277
- Purposes for teachers, 246-268; characteristics, 258; finding, 259-260; means of leading teachers to seek and use, 260-265; obvious in use, 258; of encouraging teachers to do research, 559-561; of supervision, 2-19
- Purposeful learning, 270 ff.; advantages of, 285-294
- Purposeless study, results of, 283-284
- Questions to ask when observing, 335-336
- Rating schemes, 92-93
- Reading by teachers, 477-482
- Records of recitations observed, 342-345
- Relations of principal with others, 101-130: with Board of Education, 101-103; with community, 123-127; with heads of departments, 112-116; with superintendent, 54-66, 103-107; with supervisors, 107-112; with teachers, 116-123
- Reliability of tests, 517, 518-521
- Remedial teaching, 537
- Report cards, 127
- Reports of observations, 341-347
- Research, bureaus, 555; challenge to, 222; by teachers, 556-564; outside the school system, 555-556; techniques, 564; types, 554-555
- Results, of conferences, 379; of purposeless study, 283-284; of supervision, 571-579; of teachers meetings, 453-454
- Samoa, education for, 215-216
- Scaled tests, 538
- Scheduled observations, 318-320
- Scientific Method in Supervision*, 172
- Scientific supervision, 140-142
- Simplicity, 136-137
- Small schools, supervision in, 66
- Social-Economic Goals for America*, 3
- Sociological references, 165
- Special fields, supervision in, 187-188
- Special supervisors, 58
- Specific purposes, 257
- Standard plan for supervision, 161-162
- Stenographic records of lessons, 340-341, 487-488
- Stimulating growth *vs.* removing defects, 153-158, *et passim*.
- Summer schools, 91, 469-472
- Superintendent, principal's relations with, 103-107
- Superintendent Surveys Supervision*, 2, 7, 15, 31-32, 56, 69, 73-74, 84, 98, 105, 309, 397, 488, 573
- Superintendent's cabinet, 408
- Supervision: attitudes of teachers toward, 43-52; constructive, 23-24; corrective, 20-21; creative, 24-25; defined, 1-19, 132; details, 134; immediate, 134-135; in unfamiliar fields, 42-43, 187-188; means, 25-33; positive principles of, 136-159; preventive, 21-23; purposes, 2-19; reasons for, 35-42; some principles of, 132-159; types, 20-25
- Supervision and the Creative Teacher*, 24
- Supervisors, principal's relations with, 107-112
- Supervisory bulletins, 459-464
- Supervisory conferences, 174, 352-398: after, 378-79; bibliography, 397-398; exercises, 379-397; illustrations, 380-397; preparation for, 365-370; purposes of, 352-360; results of, 379; technique of, 370-377; types of, 360-365
- Supervisory experimentation, 550-570: bibliography, 570; exercises, 569
- Supervisory program, 142-148
- Supplies, 172-173
- Teacher experience, variations in, 37
- Teacher participation in teachers meetings, 433-434
- Teacher training, variations in, 36-37
- Teachers, assignment of, 176-177
- Teachers, difficulties of, 39-40
- Teachers, knowledge of, 169-172
- Teachers, new, 39-40
- Teachers, principal's relations with, 116-123
- Teachers and objectives, 194-196
- Teachers and supervision, 35-53, 194-196
- Teachers' attitudes, toward being observed, 309-310; toward confer-



- ences, 351-352; toward institutes and lectures, 473; toward study, 466-467; toward testing, 541; toward teachers meetings, 403-404
- Teachers meetings, 173-174, 399-458:
  - administrative aspects, 446-450;
  - basic suggestions, 450-453; bibliography, 457-458; current practices, 402-403; exercises, 454-457;
  - importance and limitations, 399-402; results, 453-454; planning, 434-440; purposes, 412-430; responsibility of the principal, 430-433; teacher participation, 433-434; teachers' attitudes, 403-404; topics suggested, 440-446; types 404-412
- Teachers' opposition to supervision, 181
- Teaching tests, 531-532
- Technique of conferences, 370-377
- Testing practices, 517-518
- Testing program, 175, 542-546
- Tests, 522-530. *See* Measurement
- Textbooks, weaknesses of, 281-282
- Time for supervision, 182-188
- Topics for teachers meetings, 440-446
- Training of teachers for measurement, 517
- Types of observational visits, 317-321
- Types of organization for supervision, 54-67; coördinate, 57-58; dualistic, 54-55; line and staff, 55-57; some principles, 62-67
- Types of research, 554-555
- Types of supervision, 20-34; constructive, 23-25; corrective, 20-21; preventive, 21-23
- Types of teachers meetings, 404-413
- Ultimate basis of supervision, 191-212
- Validity of tests, 516, 518
- Variation in teachers' experience, 37; training, 36-37
- Vision, 163
- Visiting for observation, 488-492
- Visitors, entertaining, 125
- Visits on call, 318-320
- Worthy purposes, 255-256













THE JAMMU & KASHMIR UNIVERSITY  
LIBRARY.

**DATE LOANED**

Class No.

Book No.

Vol.

**Copy.**

Accession No.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal blue or grey ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There is no handwriting or printed text visible on the paper.







THE JAMMU & KASHMIR UNIVERSITY  
LIBRARY.

**DATE LOANED**

Class No. ~~7~~

Book No. 2112

Vol. \_\_\_\_\_

Copy \_\_\_\_\_

Accession No. ~~1111~~

--	--	--





# ALLAMA IQBAL LIBRARY

UNIVERSITY OF KASHMIR  
HELP TO KEEP THIS BOOK  
FRESH AND CLEAN

The Jammu & Kashmir  
University Library,  
Srinagar.

1. Overdue charge of *one anna* per-day will be charged for each volume kept after the due date.
2. Borrowers will be held responsible for any damage done to the book while in their possession.